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This publication is designed to serve 3 purposes: (1) It is a report of the 1966 Summer Workshop-Symposium on "School-College Partnerships in Teacher Education," cosponsored by the publishers, (2) It presents additional thinking not included in that program or which has come to light since, and (3) It serves as a follow-up to 1964 and 1965 studies as third in a series devoted to helping those interested in teacher education to stay abreast of changes and to be prepared to exercise enlightened leadership. Most of the 34 contributors are university-based administrators of teacher education programs. Section 1 provides brief reflections on the workshop-symposium, and Section 2 presents much of the conference content: a chapter on promises and pitfalls in the trend toward collaboration; descriptions and analyses of emerging partnerships in teacher education; a review of group discussions at the conference; and elaborations on 7 issues and problems in cooperative venturing. Section 3 focuses on emerging administrative and regulatory developments in collaborative enterprises. Section 4 deals with the foundations for partnership in the philosophical bases of teacher education. Various innovative procedures and practices in supervision, such as microteaching, simulation training, and pre-student teaching laboratories, are discussed in the 12 parts of Section 5. A final section offers "A Look at the Future." (JS)

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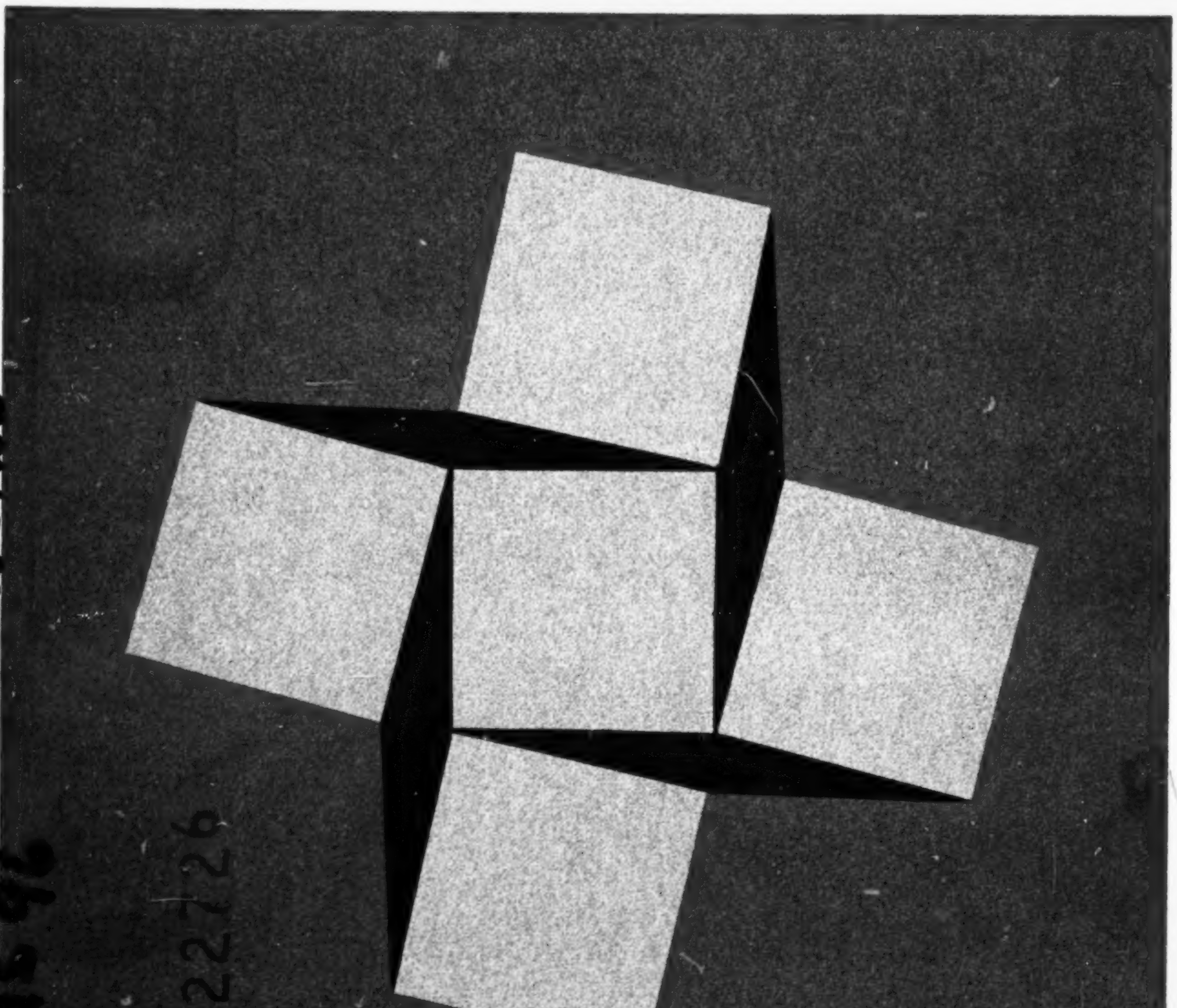

Edited by E. Brooks Smith • Hans C. Olsen • Patrick J. Johnson • Chandler Barbour

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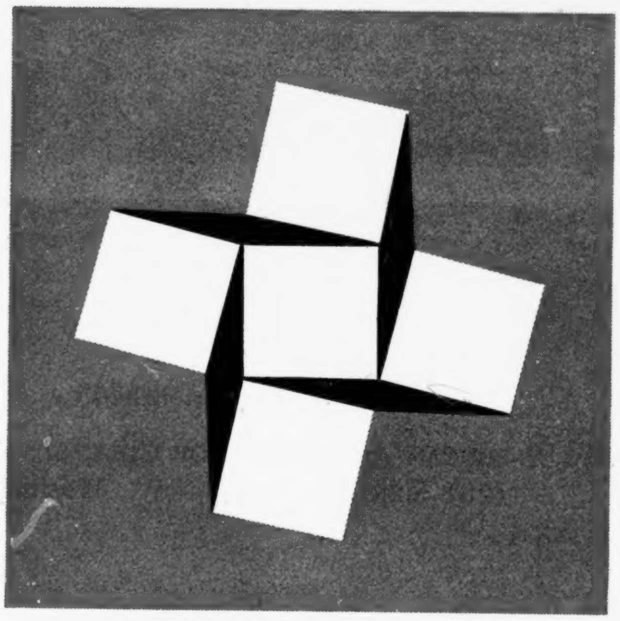

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FOREWORD

In 1962 the Committee on Studies of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education appointed a Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education to focus attention on the relationships of schools and colleges in providing laboratory experiences in teacher education. The Association for Student Teaching joined this venture, and the two groups have coordinated their efforts through this Subcommittee. The Workshop-Symposium, held in 1966 on the campus of the Indiana University of Pennsylvania, culminated the Subcommittee's activities. This publication is the product of that conference.

The work of this Subcommittee, as evidenced by this publication and its two previous publications, *Cooperative Structures in School-College Relationships for Teacher Education* and *School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures,* has been noteworthy. The movement of many of the prestudent teaching and student teaching experiences from the campus laboratory school to the schools in neighboring communities, frequently remote from the college, has created difficult problems. That these problems often were solved by default only served to delay the time when the school systems and teacher education institutions must face them directly. The interest of some state departments of education and state legislatures, and currently the United States Congress, in legislation to help solve some of the problems related to student teaching and other laboratory experiences, underlines the importance of the problem.

It is imperative that the educational community, including all of the component parts which are related to the teacher education function, take immediate steps to clearly delineate the problems related to this area and set up guidelines for a number of possible solutions to them. The workshop of Indiana, Pennsylvania, and this resulting publication have made a significant contribution to these ends.

The 256 people at the Workshop-Symposium, the Subcommittee of the Committee on Studies, and other members of AST and AACTE who have made contributions to this effort are to be commended. We especially congratulate E. Brooks Smith, Hans Olsen, and Patrick Johnson for their work in editing this publication.

Dorothy McGeoch
President—1966
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Edward C. Pomeroy
Executive Secretary
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for Teacher Education

PREFACE

In the last several years there has been an accelerating movement toward more collaboration in teacher education, particularly the laboratory phase. The problems encountered by personnel from schools, colleges, state departments of education, professional organizations, and the federal government have made many aware of the need for cooperative arrangements involving schools, colleges, and related agencies. It has become clear to them that no one of these institutions or agencies can successfully "go-it-alone" in the education of teachers, either preservice or in-service. As a result, some institutions and agencies have already established cooperative ventures. Others want information which will assist them in developing working partnerships. Still others, while not denying the problems, are not sure that collaboration is the answer. They want to study further this and other possible alternatives. In any case, interest in partnerships continues to grow.

This publication serves several purposes. First, it is a report of the 1966 Summer Workshop-Symposium on "School-College Partnerships in Teacher Education," cosponsored by The Association for Student Teaching and The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The Workshop-Symposium was held in August, 1966, on the campus of Indiana University of Pennsylvania. Some 250 participants attended. They came from public schools, private schools, campus schools, public colleges and universities, private colleges and universities, state departments of education, professional organizations, and the federal government. They listened to descriptions of current cooperative ventures presented by representatives of the sponsoring institutions and agencies and then scrutinized and analyzed these ventures in small group sessions. They listened to recognized authorities who presented information necessary for intelligent consideration of working partnerships in teacher education. They were also members of small groups which investigated a topic of particular relevance to the theme, or worked to refine existing models for collaborative structures.

Second, building from the base provided by the Workshop-Symposium program, this publication presents additional relevant thinking necessary for the continued refinement of the concept of partnership programs in teacher education. No brief workshop can possibly include all important related information, ideas, and points of view. New programs, new ideas, and new formulations of existing knowledge come to attention regularly. This, then, is also an attempt to present that which could not be included in the program of the Workshop-Symposium, and that which has come to light since the conference.

In a very real way the third purpose of this publication is to serve as a follow-up to two previous Reports by the AACTE Subcommittee on School-College Relationships: *School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures,*[1] and *Cooperative Structures in School-College Relationships for Teacher Education.*[2] Increasing interest in the concept, rapid growth of programs, and development of new knowledge dictated the need for supplementing and up-dating the two earlier reports. Thus, this may be viewed as the third in a series of publications devoted to helping those interested in teacher education to stay abreast of changes and to be prepared to exercise enlightened leadership.

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[1] Smith, E. Brooks, and Johnson, Patrick, editors. *School-College Relationships in Teacher Education: Report of a National Survey of Cooperative Ventures.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964. 70 pp.

[2] Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education of the Committee on Studies. *Cooperative Structures in School-College Relationships for Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1965. 106 pp.

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SECTION I

Reflections on a Conference

A workshopper, an "old hand," was overheard to say of the Workshop-Symposium, "This is a watershed conference." History will take care of the long-range significance of the conference for the total profession, but the meeting held meaning for many persons because it focussed their attention on the fundamental question of the viability of teacher education programs in which—and this is most of them—the vital laboratory experience phase is operated on sufferance rather than cooperation in a joint enterprise.

PHILIP W. PERDEW

Reflections on a Conference

Philip W. Perdew
Professor of Education
University of Denver

Has Student Teaching a Future?

Student teaching can't possibly work. But here it is, and it has been here for a century or more. We are like the bee which, I understand, is poorly engineered aerodynamically, but who, in his blissful ignorance, flits about with apparent ease and even makes a little honey on the side. We don't know that it won't work, so we go ahead and do it anyway; meanwhile alternately complaining of its inadequacy, blasting cooperating teachers who don't cooperate our way or who don't even teach, or taking pot shots at college supervisors who rarely are available when needed or, when available, only interfere rather than help. So, meetings which involve cooperating teachers and college supervisors, or either group alone, when student teaching is discussed, revolve around such issues, not inconsequential issues, really, as: Shall cooperating teachers be paid; and if so, how much and by whom; or who shall give the grade in student teaching—the cooperating teacher or the college supervisor? These are lower-level but "heart" or "gut" level issues (depending on your taste for romantic or contemporary literature) since they are relevant to the big issue of "who's in charge here."

A workshopper, an "old hand," was overheard to say of the Workshop-Symposium, "This is a watershed conference." History will take care of the long-range significance of the conference for the total profession, but the meeting held meaning for many persons because it focussed their attention on the fundamental question of the viability of teacher education programs in which—and this is most of them—the vital laboratory experience phase is operated on sufferance rather than cooperation in a joint enterprise.

Some long for the halcyon days when the whole of teacher education was under the control of the university, the college, or more likely, the normal school, where the campus school had as a primary purpose the teaching of teachers. Enshrined on our memories, with her halo only slightly askew, is the laboratory school teacher with her equal interest in the two groups of learners: the prospective teachers and the children. With second thoughts, we recall the weakness of that situation—overcrowding, lack of realism, and the apprenticeship level of the instruction in the "right" method. The campus school was the embodiment of a good idea, harmony through the institutionalization of a significant purpose, the complete education of the beginning teacher under one faculty and administration.

Student teaching is kept alive and presentable only through the patience, kindliness, and good will of the cooperating teachers, principals, and superintendents in the public schools and the college supervisors, directors of student teaching, and college administrators. The student teacher is so low in the "pecking" order that his attitudes don't count for much. It is assumed that he will cooperate. The other alternative, that laboratory experience is not important enough to be concerned about, I cannot contemplate. The purposes of the two institutions, the college and the school, are so different that only the flexibility of those who are closely involved in the student teaching enterprise makes it operable. As Dean Hetenyi pointed out at Indiana, each institution and each role which relates to student teaching has its own purpose, and only through political art are these varied purposes made to coincide in student teaching. Paul Briggs, Cleveland Superintendent, in speaking to the opening session of the workshop, stated the strong interest of the administrator in obtaining teachers of the highest quality. Student teaching serves as a recruitment vehicle for many administrators, and that is where their purposes coincide with those of the college which is looking for placement of its students, first for student teaching, and later for the beginning full-time position.

Basically, the public school's first priority is educating children and convincing the public that it is doing the job effectively and efficiently. The college places its priority on the education of the young (and sometimes not so young) adult as a teacher. Laboratory experience can be carried on only where the children are—in the schools. The painful experience for the college supervisor comes again and again when the student needs directed teaching experience in order to develop his competence as a teacher, but is not getting much experience because he is not yet as competent as the regular teacher, and the children might suffer. How about the suffering of the children whom this new student teacher —later, beginning teacher—will have the next year? How about the suffering of the student teacher right now? He is not obtaining the learning for which he has paid his tuition. Is it possible that public schools might recognize the high priority that should be given to the education of the next generation of teachers so that the long-run quality of teaching might be improved?

The acceptance of a high priority for the education of teachers is a necessity for a truly cooperative venture. Cooperating teachers owe their first allegiance to their school systems. The aims of the school are implemented in the classroom. When the aim of the education of teachers has low priority, as it does in most situations, the cooperating teacher is reluctant to give it the attention which it needs. To achieve status and recognition in the school system through excellence as a cooperating teacher may well be difficult or, at best, slow in coming. If the school accepts teacher education as a high priority responsibility, and if this responsibility is adequately interpreted throughout the school system, cooperating teachers can more readily see their dual role as teachers of children and teachers of teachers.

Cooperative Ventures

In the spring of 1962, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education appointed a Subcommittee of the Committee on Studies to look into the matter of school and college relations in teacher education laboratory experience. The Association for Student Teaching appointed a member of the Subcommittee as well, so the two organizations have been intimately involved throughout the study. Early in its work, the Committee sent out an inquiry to the AACTE member institutions to discover whether there were any unusual cooperative structural arrangements involving schools and colleges. They found some and published their findings in 1964[1] and 1965.[2] The Committee found variety and originality in purposes, institutions involved, structures, and extent of cooperation between schools and colleges.

Several of the colleges and their related schools were invited to submit their programs to the critical analysis of their colleagues at other institutions at the 1966 Workshop-Symposium. This was a major activity of the conference.

Student Teaching Centers:

Individual institutions have structured relationships with one or more school districts with the primary objective of improving the laboratory phase of teacher education. These structures generally provide for the school to assume a higher degree of responsibility for teacher education than the conventional provision of student teaching stations. Some involve joint responsibility for supervision of the total laboratory program. Others involve joint planning for the program for instruction of cooperating teachers. Still others include joint planning of varied laboratory experiences extending well beyond student teaching. Some plans call for all of the above, plus cooperative planning of other aspects of the teacher education program. Joint responsibility for financing, planning, and control is carried out through various structures and procedures, but all three responsibilities are implicitly or explicitly involved.

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[1] Smith and Johnson, *op. cit.*

[2] Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education, *op. cit.*

The limitations and inadequacies of conventional student teaching arrangements, which carry with them divided allegiance and contradiction in purposes, cause the student teaching center to be intriguing as a model institution for the future. True cooperation with joint responsibility can change sufferance to succorance, provide a focus for allegiance of both cooperating teacher and college supervisor, and modernize the old campus school concept in terms of present realities.

Sainthood for promoters of the student teaching center may yet be delayed, due not alone to human frailties, but also to limitations in conception. Generally speaking, student teaching centers suffer from viewing the laboratory experience phase of teacher education as culminating in a one-to-one relationship of a student teacher, a cooperating teacher, and a class of children. Margaret Lindsey, in the concluding speech of the workshop, stated, "The present notion of student teaching will fade out of existence." Replacing it, in her judgment, will be a variety of experiences suitable for the various levels of readiness achieved by the student during his preservice preparation. Lindsey speculated that the school of the future would be a laboratory for the study of education in which prospective teachers would play a variety of roles. The student teaching center may become a transitional institution moving toward a new structure with new roles, but still with the necessary component of joint venturing with schools and colleges playing cooperative, but varying, roles.

Affiliated Schools:

Critical analysis was also applied to some institutional arrangements which included joint responsibilities in research and development relating to curriculum and teaching methods. Some of these arrangements are substantially supported by federal funds; others are financed within the institutions. They share Lindsey's interest in pumping vitality into faculties, both college and school, through involvement in the promotion of change toward meaningful goals.

Student teaching is not the focus of this type of relationship. In most cases the fact is quite the contrary. In this type of relationship, the college attempts to "catalyze" change, test ideas, and keep teaching relevant. Probably schools and colleges come together to serve some other human and institutional needs such as prestige, succorance, or securing federal or foundation funds. Hetenyi pointed out the reality of serving the different needs of varied institutions through activities which represent a coincidence or convergence of these needs on a common activity.

Institutional arrangements of this kind have the potentiality of providing a variety of laboratory experiences for college students at both preservice and in-service levels. As prospective teachers become involved in research activity where the children are—in the classroom—they can learn to see teaching as a research-oriented activity. If to college students at the preservice stage are left the chores of counting, tabulating, mark-sensing for the computer, and similar tasks, they may well lose their interest in teaching. The challenge to the administrators of such programs is to utilize them to their maximum learning potential for teachers as well as laboratories for testing ideas or collecting solid data for publication.

State Programs:

Some of the workshoppers examined state programs for student teaching. West Virginia and Georgia have been trying to improve student teaching through the leadership of the state departments of education for several years. Texas instituted a state-wide improvement plan with legislative support in recent years. Differences in state size, population, and general character have led to varied purposes and structures, all of which merit study for their applicability elsewhere.

State or regional plans have a significant potential which has not yet been fully realized. They suffer from their narrow focus on student teaching in a conventional mold, and the limited funds which have been the lot of state departments of education. New funds make possible new goals and new activities. The possibilities inherent in an organization that is not limited to a single school district, or to one institution of higher education, could provide a freedom to encourage innovation beyond the scope of other organizations.

Educational Laboratories:

The educational laboratory concept in federal legislation, with Office of Education sponsorship, has just been born. It is so new, so inexperienced, that no provision was made for analyzing it at the Workshop-Symposium. Wayne Reed of the U.S. Office of Education did not even refer to it as one of the aspects of federal interest in school-college cooperation in laboratory experience. Perhaps the full potential is not yet understood, although Lindsey did give attention to it in her later address. Like the state departments of education, it has a freedom and a responsibility extending well beyond single colleges or school systems. It, too, has a potentiality for developing the new teacher education institution, drawing upon the strong characteristics of the laboratory (campus) school and incorporating Lindsey's research-oriented school. It can provide for the involvement of prospective teachers in a variety of creative activities if it will pick up this challenge.

Study Groups

The general theme of college-school cooperation was included in the plan, even though the topics exceeded the bounds of such an idea when it is narrowly conceived. Topics were chosen because of their continuing interest or "frontier" thinking possibilities. Most of the topics suggest potentialities for cooperative action among schools and colleges, even leading to cooperative structures. Among such topics were the following:

1. In-service education of supervising teachers and college supervisors
2. Federal, state, and local support of student teaching
3. The internship
4. Prestudent teaching laboratory experience
5. Continuing teacher education
6. The clinical professor and joint appointments
7. Team supervision.

One topic which did not seem to imply the necessity for cooperative structures was that group in which I participated, "simulation techniques in teacher education," but the group discussion on that topic also turned in that direction. Roles to be played by both schools and colleges seemed to call for partnership and probably cooperative structures as well.

Since study groups stayed together and dealt with a single topic throughout the several sessions allocated to this type of activity, only two persons at the conference were in a position to have a very clear knowledge of the variety of approaches and concerns. James Nickerson and Hans Olsen circulated among the groups and led the summary report sessions. That aspect of the Workshop-Symposium will be reviewed in a later section. Here, however, we can take a look at the study group on simulation techniques from the viewpoint of one of the twenty group members.

In preparing for the group study, I reviewed several articles which included "simulation" in the title, and came to the conclusion that I had happened onto the new "fad" term for the next few years. Such a wide variety of activities were included that it was almost impossible to discover a definition which would cover them all. Instead, we confined our discussion to activities which are similar to teaching and observing, but which are not, in fact, carried on in the regular classroom. That was still somewhat ambiguous, so we chose to emphasize those which involved the use of "new" media such as audio- or videotapes of teaching situations, intermittent photography, and micro-teaching with video playback. We also included more traditional approaches, such as the college student's teaching his fellow students as if they were high school pupils.

Certainly some of these activities can be carried on without the partnership of schools or school systems. Furthermore, one of the reasons for using simulation in teacher education is to substitute campus activities for some field experiences. The latter are increasingly difficult to arrange with adequate quality controls and in sufficient numbers to meet the rising tide of teacher education enrollments. On the other hand, several of the simulation activities involve arrangements with the schools. The development of videotapes of selected teaching activities requires the cooperative participation of schools and teachers. The level of mutual confidence required for taking teaching episodes out of the classroom for scrutiny and analysis by college students is necessarily higher than simply permitting a student or a group of students to visit a classroom and observe. Yet, this mutuality is necessary if videotaping, or even audiotaping, is to occur. In addition, micro-teaching, which is done with groups of five or six children, may well require assistance from the school for the recruitment of micro-teaching pupils. Again, this requires mutual confidence which may necessitate cooperative structures.

Simulation may well replace prestudent teaching laboratory experiences or even traditional student teaching. It will present new and unfamiliar problems. This novelty and unfamiliarity may well be an avenue to new qualities in cooperation. As we all feel the insecurity of a bold new venture, we may be drawn closer together for mutual aid and support.

General Sessions

Foundations for Modern Teacher Education:

Three of the general session speakers dealt with topics which were not necessarily directly related to the theme of the Workshop-Symposium. Herbert LaGrone spoke on "Conceptualizing Teaching," clarifying and extending some of the ideas which he had developed and presented earlier as the foundation of the work of the AACTE Teacher Education and Media (TEAM) project. Karl Openshaw spoke on the topic of "Research in Teaching." Arthur Combs, in speaking on "Teacher Education—A Problem in Becoming," dwelt upon certain aspects of perceptual psychology and their significance for the education of teachers, as he had done earlier in his brief book, *The Professional Education of Teachers.*[3] The choice of these three speakers and their topics provided a stimulating contrast in approaches to teacher education. To some extent Margaret Lindsey harmonized the three approaches in her concluding banquet speech. All of the speeches proved to have implications for changing school-college relationships, even though they were not pointed in that direction.

LaGrone emphasized the ability of college students to understand teaching through analysis of the teaching process. This approach depends upon study on the campus, so to speak, rather than in the field, although it would culminate in a field experience of some kind. Students would analyze child growth and learning, but a particular emphasis would be on teaching behaviors. This emphasis would be on generally applicable teaching behavior as well as specific approaches to individual subjects. A further aspect is that of understanding major disciplines and how knowledge is developed in each of them. The LaGrone approach can be referred to as cognitive, depending upon reasoning rather than direct experience. The cognitive approach is not, however, divorced from experience, but utilizes a variety of the newer media to bring selected and systematized aspects of teaching to the college classroom through film, audiotapes, videotapes, and other devices. This experience is vicarious rather than direct in appearance, but it does allow for systematic analysis of teaching well beyond that which is feasible under conventional observation, participation, or student teaching. The cognitive approach to teacher education also finds much of its data in research on teaching behavior which Openshaw reviewed and developed for the conference.

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[3] Combs, Arthur Wright. *The Professional Education of Teachers: A Perceptual View of Teacher Preparation.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965. 134 pp.

Implicit in the cognitive approach is the collection of films or tapes from actual teaching situations. To obtain these as well as research data will necessitate the participation of the schools. Partnership between schools and colleges will be necessary to a more intimate degree than tradition or convention has encouraged.

Openshaw was frankly behavioristically oriented as he discussed research in teaching. He criticized much of conventional teacher education and educational research for its lack of behavioral orientation. "Current content and method have been generated almost exclusively on logical grounds without explicit empirical reference to a clear definition of criterion behavior. . . . Criterion measures of immediate and longer-range learner behavior for both the teacher educator and for the student in programs of teacher education must be established." Furthermore, he asserted that the surest road to improving teacher education was through research concerning teaching as a composite of behaviors. "The concept which holds the greatest promise for providing a base for the substance of teacher education, that is demonstrably relevant to actual teaching, is the analysis, description, and understanding of the teaching task itself." The research, which was cited by Openshaw as illustrative of the direction in which we are moving, involved systematic observation and analysis of regular teachers in action.

It is obvious that Openshaw's view of the road ahead in teacher education is consistent with LaGrone's in that research will provide data, including systems of analysis, which prospective teachers will use as a basis of their cognition. Lindsey added an important supplementary idea in suggesting that prospective teachers be involved in the research process along with experienced teachers and college instructors, and that this be a significant part of their laboratory experience.

Combs looked at teaching from his background of thirty years of experience in clinical psychology, counseling and psychotherapy, and teaching. From this background, he saw teachers, priests, social workers, and others in the helping professions as successful to the extent that they are authentic persons. This stance put his ideas in direct opposition to those of LaGrone and Openshaw in almost every respect. "What makes an effective professional worker is not a question of his behaving in any particular way. Rather, it seems to be a matter of how effectively he has learned to use his unique self in carrying out the functions of his particular branch of the helping professions he is responsible for." To become a teacher, a student must become a self and grow in his understanding of the use of his self as an instrument for assisting the growth of selfhood in other persons. Some harmony of Combs with LaGrone and Openshaw came in his recognition that traditional teacher education in its behavioral emphasis had achieved some success "because the critical examination of behavior may involve an individual in an examination of his purposes and beliefs. . . . This is probably why our confidence that examination of behavior will change it is so widespread." Combs disagrees with this approach because it is too limited. "Seeing the production of teachers as a problem in becoming, however, calls for a different emphasis upon the development of beliefs, values, purposes, and personal meanings instead of behavior."

Combs suggested that prospective teachers find meaning in their preparation through extended laboratory experience in contact with children and the critical analysis of that experience. This should commence as early as the student identifies teaching as his professional goal and continue throughout his college program and the first year of teaching. Presumably, it would not end there, but the teacher might, by then, be able to continue his own education with the same orientation.

The implementation of the Combs procedure obviously implies close relationship between schools and colleges. To have confidence that the experience is significant in promoting the development of selfhood, schools and colleges would need to have clear understandings of the functions which were being promoted, and this understanding would need to extend most particularly to the classroom teacher level. The difficulties in finding excellent spots for laboratory experience would be a limitation or a challenge for those who would operate such a program. Interestingly enough, the procedures for providing extended prestudent teaching laboratory experience have been around for many years, but the qualities which Combs would seek have not been achieved. It is the affective qualities which Combs advocated which would make the difference between one kind of "traditional" teacher education and that which he seeks.

Lindsey's speech, at the banquet which concluded the conference, has been referred to several times already. She was not obliged to summarize what had gone before, but, in many respects, she provided a harmonization and a synthesis of the sharply contrasting viewpoints. Furthermore, she looked ahead to the significance of educational laboratories and the participation of prospective as well as experienced teachers in them. The educational laboratory will also help to break down the discrete separation of preservice and in-service education. The practice of teaching will include the critical analysis of teaching, and we shall have students of teaching at various maturity levels.

Focus

The Workshop-Symposium was, in all probability, many things to many people. The view depends upon the point from which it was taken. With 256 people from all parts of the United States—in professional positions in the federal government, state departments of education, public and private schools, college laboratory schools, public and private colleges and universities, and professional organizations—a great variety of viewpoints was present. From the viewpoint of the author, the scene became integrated in spite of its apparent chaos of varied activities and contrasting ideas, vigorously and articulately expressed.

Closer school and college relationships are imperative. New mechanisms and new structures are being formed. These new structures call for new roles and fundamental rearrangements of responsibilities. Schools are finding their way toward including teacher education as a primary, high-priority function. Customary arrangements for student teaching are being remodeled here and there. Student teaching in the old form is becoming increasingly ineffective and impossible. A replacement is overdue. For change to become progress, the ferment in teacher education needs full cooperation of schools and colleges and a fundamental review of purposes, functions, roles, and responsibilities.

SECTION II

Emerging Partnerships: Descriptions, Analyses, and Issues

There is a promise that quality of teaching performance can be improved at every level if collaboration in teacher education becomes an everyday happening.

E. BROOKS SMITH

PART I

Promises and Pitfalls in the Trend Toward Collaboration

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Emerging Partnerships

All of the cooperative ventures and partnership structures between teacher education institutions and agencies that are being built today will be for naught unless they meet some of the promises for instructional improvement and research development that appear in their stated goals. The simple act of working cooperatively on common tasks holds promise for finding new solutions to old problems and for discovering new challenges. On the other hand, genuine cooperative effort between institutions, when members are involved together in decision making, can generate complexities and confusions that become pitfalls to the advancement of the educational endeavor. As partnerships emerge, possible ways to realize promises and avoid pitfalls must be considered. Information and advice on these matters emerge from between the lines of descriptions of cooperative projects reported. Discussions among participants at the Workshop-Symposium, and among the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships, focussed on these concerns. The following exposition has been developed from these sources.

The movement toward closer collaboration, indeed toward a partnership in the teacher education and educational research endeavors, is not just on its way; it is happening precipitously under the impact of an aggressive federal program. This emerging reorganization of the educational enterprise is going to change the landscape in which teacher education and research take place. Present-day professional educators will have to make this change, and it may set the design for another fifty years. Old patterns of working together are being discarded as new ones are forged under pressures from the public for improved education. The profession itself is asking for a more organized attack on teacher education problems that have suffered from a laissez-faire approach for too long. The schools, universities, state departments, and professional organizations must learn to collaborate efficiently and effectively or the profession will not be able to meet the public demand for improvement. Some other power center may then gain control and the profession will have lost its autonomy and the leadership it previously possessed. Petty conflicts, caused by status differences and by narrow points of view, must be ameliorated. One way to accomplish a meeting of minds and purpose is to bring the various workers in the educational enterprise together, face to face, to meet the modern challenges.

A First Promise: Working Together as Professional Equals:

The first promise is that the total profession can learn to work together in a partnership of equals. However, in this promise there is a pitfall, unless "equals" is realistically defined in terms of roles. School personnel, university professors, and state department experts are equal in their contribution to, and importance in, the educational enterprise; but the contributions are different. No one of them can, or should be, "all things to all people." Each has his bailiwick, and rightly so. The school's rightful business is practice—examined and enlightened practice. This can be accomplished best in the field. The university's rightful job is scholarly investigation of the educational activity by building theory from experimental findings, and from study of disciplines that touch on education. This can best be done at the university where the means for intensive scholarship reside and where students of education may view educational problems from a universal and objective position. The state agency for public instruction is responsible for overseeing the total enterprise, enforcing minimum standards, and fostering cooperative leadership at local and regional levels. Professional organization should be responsible for encouraging members to reach for maximum standards and fair practices. They should provide a forum for the discussion of issues and innovative ideas which will promote imaginative policy making.

A First Possible Pitfall—Take-over:

A main deterrent to productive cooperation in the past has been the mistaken attempt of one of these institutions to take over the responsibilities of the other when it has been in political ascendency. Because one of the institutions shows weakness at a particular time does not mean that it should be eliminated by another of the institutions' taking over its duties. Instead, that institution should be strengthened so that it may better do that which it is supposed to do. Sometimes personnel of large, dominating school systems, with plenty of money, like to think that they can handle the educational research component better than the university because they feel closer to the real problems. However, when freedom of inquiry is considered, they cannot easily escape the parochial view: what is good for our district must be good for everybody else. They cannot view educational problems universally. This is the job of the university. That is why it is called a university. Dominating universities, on the other hand, should not insist that their expert staff can tell each neighboring local district what is best for it every time. One characteristic of good scholarship should be humility. Strong professional organizations sometimes feel that they can take over the setting and enforcing of standards. Since they are not politically responsible to the public, they move out of bounds by assuming extralegal functions. This does not mean that professional organizations cannot be highly selective in their membership and persuade or cajole public institutions into action, but it does mean that the public state agencies must deal with final decisions regarding social demands in public education. Although the state may deal with such matters as certification requirements to protect the public, it goes too far when it is tempted to make curriculum either for the school or for teacher education. If a state agency should take over the student teaching program, for example, as advocated by Conant, it would deprive the university faculty of major instructional control over a most vital educational phase of teacher preparation. The university cannot be responsible for teacher education if its professional school does not have the major role in professional education. Each institution and agency has a significant job to do in the educational enterprise; collaborative ventures should bring them creatively together, as equals, with different contributions to make, but neither more important than the other. They may form new representative institutions outside their present organization to accomplish collaboration; but, even in these, the special responsibilities need not be taken away. Instead, they should be heightened and intensified by the collaboration. A monolithic educational system would be anathema to a free society.

If educational institutions will meet the demands of their roles, as conceived in the structure of our society, and learn to work with collaboration and coordination, their cooperation can begin to make several other promises for educational advancement a reality.

Some Promises in the Making

Promise of a Breakthrough in Implementing New Ideas:

One of the most exciting promises that the profession as a whole may achieve is a breakthrough in the implementation of new ideas based on research and study. The traditional fifty-year lag between the development of educational theory and the initiation of practice based on that theory may be cut substantially. The lag resulted mostly from a lack of articulation between universities, schools, state agencies, and professional organizations. Communication was only on the surface; each institution was talking to, or at, the others—not *with* the others. There has been no true dialogue.

In conjunction, the university and the school, with assists from state agencies and professional organizations, may be able to work out an intermediary kind of research and experimentation which is between basic research and classroom practice. Intermediary research has been missing from the educational scene, but if devised and implemented, it could bring a dramatic breakthrough. Some collaborative efforts along these lines are emerging at local, state, and regional levels. The New York City "Campus School" program has demonstrated already that local colleges can develop, with school staffs, significant research programs which test out innovative ideas in the school setting. These school and college staffs *are* in dialogue. Several of the federally sponsored Regional Laboratories for Research and Development have set up close working relations between selected schools and universities. Indeed the intent of the legislation has been to force collaboration between various educational agencies, public and private, in the regional communities. In the private sector, such organizations as Educational Services, Inc., and the Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland have developed close ties with selected school staffs for carrying out experimentation and evaluation of innovative ideas.

A League of Cooperating Schools for Research and Development:

John Goodlad, a leader in the modern development of the laboratory school as a center for experimentation, has initiated a collaborative venture in Southern California between The University Elementary School on the campus of the University of California, Los Angeles, and a *League of Cooperating Schools*. A formal network of relationships has been worked out, including teams of university-school researchers which will plan and execute intermediary research on a regular basis. In introducing this idea in an informal communication to the Summer Workshop-Symposium (April 22, 1966), he elaborated upon intermediary experimentation and how it might be executed in a *League of Cooperating Schools:*

> Educational change of a fundamental sort is enormously difficult. It is ever so much easier to refine the existing structure in a variety of ways than to redesign the enterprise in any comprehensive fashion. It is fair, however, to say that most educational innovation is peripheral in character. Redesigning the whole system is too much to tackle; making a significant change without redesigning all of the parts of the system which relate to this change is meaningless. We usually end up with a label but not a real change; consequently, the situation is often worse than it was before because the people involved think they have made a forward-looking change when they have only changed the name. There is a great deal of motion—writing, talking, even acting—but the end product of all this motion is disappointingly similar to what existed at the beginning.

This situation is not really the fault of any particular group. It is simply that we have a kind of unwritten alliance which blocks effective change. Many educators want to do much better and they are eager for help. Unfortunately, there is a monstrous, continuing gap between our most imaginative and creative theorists and researchers, and school practice. We have very few "intermediate engineers" who can move back and forth in such way that they truly serve to bridge the gap between theoretical conceptualization and practice. Worse, we have very few creative individuals who are both committed to action and who have access to laboratories where they can effect their plans. Thus, we ask the principal and his staff on the firing line to effect change when they lack adequate conceptual and concrete models bridging the gap between theory and practice. We have a considerable number of inadequate models which serve to demonstrate change to a disproportionately large audience, but on careful analysis one usually finds that the changes already effected by these demonstration models are peripheral. Very often even the labels being applied to their changes do not square with the theoretical conceptions from which the models are supposed to have been derived.

Organizing Universities and Schools for the Task:

There are two kinds of answers to these dilemmas. First, there must be a conceptual process through which different stages of simulated models are built: (a) models which reveal the theoretical constructs, (b) models which reveal the transaction roles and relationships, and (c) models which show what happens at the level of implementation. Most educators have worked in theory at one level and in practice at the other, providing a direct translation without building the kinds of "intervening models" which would be of most use to the practitioner. Researchers must now build the "intervening models" and "intermediate engineers" must be trained to carry out the field experimentation. The second answer is to build an actual strategy of change by means of which the conceptual models already referred to are provided with an opportunity to find implementation in a whole range of practice. A league of cooperating public schools closely tied to a university laboratory school with collaborating staffs must be developed.

Operational Research:

Within the complex of districts surrounding most metropolitan areas there is every type of pupil population in the United States, every level of socio-economic status, every condition of schoolhouse, and every type of school problem. In effect, we can reduce the magnitude of American education to a microcosm, but the microcosm is much too big: ten or twelve million people, several large and diverse counties, hundreds of school districts, and so on. To change and to improve education within such a complex obviously is too large a task. The problem is to reduce this microcosm to manageable proportions without losing its diversity of internal elements. This is the classic research problem. Having effected the reduction, one then needs only to create the needed mechanisms for finding out the nature of the new microcosm and for changing its nature, and the results are generalizable to all similar populations—thus, to the whole of the United States. This is what we think we have in the concept of a League of Cooperating Schools representative of diversities in a metropolitan area.

Prime Contribution of the University:

The prime contribution of the university is still the advancement of knowledge even though the community would have it stress professional service. Other contributions, secondary but important, are the preparation of a whole range of individuals to participate more effectively in their world and the actual intervention of the university in the affairs of man. Universities have been partially reluctant to participate actively in the affairs of man through their faculties because the affairs of man quickly absorb all the resources made available to these affairs; especially if these resources include some of our most gifted human beings. Too heavy participation results in a serious diminution in the advancement of knowledge. On the other hand, too little participation results in a gap and even a cleavage between universities and the on-going affairs of man. The advancement of knowledge and the affairs of man buttress each other; one must enrich the other. The direction, again, is to reduce the whole problem to manageable proportions; that is, a university must find a way of having leverage without exhausting its resources. A university must find a laboratory which is an identifiable microcosm of the larger world, but it simply cannot deal directly with the world as a whole. Put in simpler terms, a university fulfills its service function wisely when its research and service functions are seen to be scarcely discernible one from the other.

Involvement with the Schools:

Ideally, the university faculty sees itself as advancing knowledge and, simultaneously, society sees the university as performing service. Translating these concepts into educational terms, the university should involve itself in real school situations in such a way that it advances knowledge on one hand and performs service on the other. The two functions may very well be conceived separately, but the operation is economical and efficient when both functions are achieved simultaneously with relatively little more effort than would be required for the fulfillment of one function alone. By these means, and others like them, the promise of a breakthrough to faster implementation of new research-based educational ideas may be realized.

Promises of Clinical Experiences in Teacher Education:

There are other promises from collaboration that are complimentary to this main hope for quickened experimentation and innovation, or that can be results of such a thrust. The clinical experience in teacher education can be enormously strengthened through collaboration between universities and schools with support from state agencies and professional organizations. Even if training in the analysis of teaching becomes mainly a simulated activity, with videotapes as the "prepared" material for study, the practice and evaluation of analysis must be carried on in the school setting. A clinical approach to teaching should be a priority element in the continuing education of teachers, as well as in preservice programs of student teaching and internship. The instructional goal for a cooperative enterprise in teacher education might be stated as follows: to facilitate the realistic study of teaching in relation to theoretical propositions about teaching.

As an example, if teaching can be construed as consisting of two main activity systems, "power wielding" and "responding to pupil reactions," as Marie Hughes suggests, then systematic observations and investigations need to be made in school settings. Experimental teaching procedures based on these theoretical concepts need to be tried and analyzed by students of teaching (college professors, teachers, and novices).

If schooling is to be anything more than a folk art in which practices that work in one generation are simply passed on to the novices of the next, then theoretical propositions and experimental processes must be injected into the daily school round. A cooperative venture in teacher education must focus on the improvement of instruction in school subjects and in the subject of teaching-pedagogy. A whole range of supervisory field experiences, from micro-teaching to internship, in which teaching may be examined becomes possible with collaboration.

Promises for In-service Teacher Education:

Some of the cooperative projects have shown that improvement of student teaching instruction is the handmaiden to improving classroom instruction. Teachers and school principals seem able to talk more freely about what to do for a student teacher or an intern than about what to do for themselves. While talking about programs for the novice, they inevitably begin to talk about what they can do in their classrooms to demonstrate a good program. Assessment of classroom instruction comes in the back door without the usual trauma of stand-off debates in faculty meetings where teachers have to defend or protect themselves and their teaching.

There is a promise that quality of teaching performance can be improved at every level if collaboration in teacher education becomes an everyday happening as professionals from the school and university work together on questions and problems of mutual concern.

Promise of Becoming a Great Profession:

Another promise is that, through a pooling of resources and manpower in collaborative efforts, the level of total educational enterprise can be lifted. Financial burdens can be shared or a common front can be mustered for making financial requests of the public. For example, a viable and strong internship program might become a reality (see Southworth). Organizational machinery between the various agencies can become a facilitator of educational improvement rather than an interference. A workable new quasi-institution between the various institutions may emerge to advance true collaboration. It will not be a supra-agency but an inter-agency gaining its resources and powers from those whom it serves. Some of the Regional Laboratories have invented organizational patterns to insure representational involvement without sacrificing direction and leadership. Some of the local, regional, and state plans for student teaching have been developing cooperative structures which are beginning to demonstrate that there can be an inter-institution between the school and the college which has stability and flexibility. As professional organizations become involved in joint efforts with schools, universities, and state agencies—and they have in some states and regions—their professionalism is enhanced. Members move beyond the talking stage and take responsibility. In turn their talk becomes more responsible. There is the great promise that teaching can become a true profession.

Building to be Done

There is a lot of building to be done if these promises of quickened implementation of educational research, of improved quality in teaching performance, and of higher professionalization are to be realized.

Goodlad's request for the development of "intervening models" in educational research design needs to be met by assigning university and school teams to this task. A cadre of "intermediate engineers" needs to be educated. Like workers in commercial laboratories they must be taught how to take pure scientific formulations and reorganize them for practical use. They need to know how to field test the operational models that they have devised. They must have their home base in the university where the initial theory is made, but their activity should be mainly in the schools as the leaders of experimental teams.

Theoretical models for teacher education must be built like the one stressing the conceptualization of teaching offered by LaGrone and his committee (see LaGrone). From them, "intervening models," involving simulation and field practice, need to be prepared and tested by teams from universities and schools. A cadre of university-based "clinical professors" needs to be educated to formulate and execute instructional programs in teaching. They must be well versed in analysis techniques and in experimentalism. They must also be knowledgeable in the arts of communication that make teaching work. Their home must be in the university in order that they retain a universal point of view, but their activity will be with the students of teaching in the schools. They will lead and coordinate teams of supervising teachers. The "clinical professor" and the "intermediate engineer" may be the same person because the two tasks are complementary. The possibility of joint appointment of such personnel to the university and to a cooperating school system should be considered, provided that tasks and responsibilities are reasonably spelled out and that the home base is the university.

Cooperative organizational structures for decision making and delineation of roles need to be built which can facilitate joint instructional and research goals. The mechanisms need to be constructed in such a way as to be business among equals who serve education in different capacities (see Johnson and Southworth). With these structures there needs to be built a social climate which can overcome some of the status barriers now extant between positions in the several institutions and in the hierarchy of each institution (see Ladd and Feinberg). The new system of procedures within the cooperative structure will need to be built on understanding of the "real politic" if it is to be effective as a partnership (see Hetenyi). There is much building to be done, but if everyone joins in, the task will be easier and the goal more sure.

Some Pitfalls to be Avoided

In such a giant enterprise as forming a consortium of schools, universities, state agencies, and professional organizations for the development of the field phases of teacher education and of educational research and development, there are bound to be pitfalls to be avoided. Some of those institutions which have already experimented with cooperative arrangements advise prospective collaborators to be wary of certain moves and organizational structures that may lead to one or all of the following negative results: mediocrity, conformity, big power take-over, or bureaucratic delay.

Conformity:

If the decision making groups are too large and too representative of all positions in each agency, the decisions are bound to be a concensus on the lowest level. Each institution will be forced by majorities to conform to decisions that will not "upset the applecart." The whole cooperative effort would be for naught if the result was a freezing of present average student teaching practices into agreements which would require a referendum-like move to be overthrown. Group structures and procedures need to be devised in such a way as to permit the entrance of innovative ideas. Flexibility must be accepted from the beginning. There needs to be an effective communication system that keeps constituencies informed while keeping channels open for suggestions and recommendations to flow upward to small decision making groups at the top.

Take-over:

The big power take-over is likely to happen by default rather than by purpose. In any consortium developed under present conditions, there are bound to be one or two large and influential universities and school systems involved. If all the universities are dependent in large part upon one larger school system, it could start calling the tunes and get its way by dividing and conquering the colleges of the region. One large, dominating university might be able to muster bigger resources than its less favorably endowed sister institutions. By sheer force of numbers, it could dominate a whole region and insist that everyone conform to its way of doing things. There is also the fear that a strong state agency could amass enough pressure to enforce its will upon a consortium. Professional organizations are gaining power through bargaining which could be misused in the "cooperative" situation. There will need to be a system of checks and balances to protect a collaborative enterprise from being dominated by the ideas and actions of one power-seeking member.

Bureaucracy:

Bureaucratic delay could develop if the cooperative structures become too complex and are fuzzy in their lines of communication, or lack means for assigning responsibility for action. Committees should be formed and meetings called only when important joint decisions have to be made. Small groups and individuals need to be given authority by the consortium to make the day by day decisions. If the larger cooperative group can decentralize the operation into small, cooperative, semi-autonomous local units, bureaucratic delay can be minimized. Decentralization into small, viable units such as cooperative teaching centers can bring improved communication at the action level and improve morale.

Insuring Against Pitfalls

There are several ways for insuring against pitfalls. One way is to be aware of the "real" politics of the situation and make constructive use of the forces and resources at work (see Hetenyi). Another means for minimizing the difficulties in a cooperating enterprise is for participating members to be aware of the sociology of the situation. For example, they need to recognize status problems within institutions and between the different types of institutions which are cooperating. Being cognizant of such factors will assist the socializing process that will need to happen in inter-institutional structures if construction is the goal (see Ladd and Feinberg). Time-honored principles of the administration of organized activities need to be considered (see Johnson and Nickerson). Finally, sound yet innovative educational goals in teacher education always need to be reconstructed and elaborated upon (see Lawrence, LaGrone, Openshaw, Briggs, Combs, and Lindsey).

Placing Responsibilities

If instruction in teaching is to happen both in a realistic and in an experimental setting, and is to deal with a studied analysis of classroom happenings, and if this instructional program is to be cooperatively planned and administered at various levels by representatives from several institutions (local schools, school districts, universities, state departments, and professional organizations); then responsibilities of each institution and the roles of their representatives need clarification and delineation beyond the customary organization of off-campus student teaching. Responsibilities have, in the past, been only vaguely assigned in a bilateral fashion with colleges asking classroom teachers to perform certain tasks as supervising teachers. A wider distribution of responsibilities will now need to be made. Old roles will need redefinition and new roles will require description.

Since the main purpose of this new consortium of institutions will be improved instruction in teaching, instructional responsibilities should first be considered. Then responsibility for coordinating and administering program and personnel should be assigned. The suggestions made here are *only general, possible patterns of assignment to be used as guidelines.* Each group of institutions will want to set up its own design appropriate to its setting and personnel.[1]

Instructional Responsibilities:

The main instructional goal for this partnership of institutions and agencies concerned with teacher education should be facilitating a realistic study of teaching in relation to theoretical propositions about teaching. The reason for this scholarly and professional study of teaching in realistic settings is to improve teacher education both in the preparation of teachers, and in the continuing education of teachers. Experimental teaching procedures based on theoretical concepts and propositions would be tried and analyzed by students of teaching (observers, student aides, student teachers, interns, supervising teachers, classroom teachers, school and university supervisors, and university professors). Classroom instruction in school and in the professional college should improve as a result.

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[1] Joint Committee on State Responsibility for Student Teaching. *A New Order in Student Teaching: Fixing Responsibilities for Student Teaching.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1967. 38 pp.

The burden of responsibility for instruction in teaching naturally falls upon local university and school personnel where the activity takes place. However, state departments and professional organizations need to be involved with university and school personnel at regional and state levels in general planning for (a) setting up clinical situations for the study of teaching, and (b) building general program policy for instruction, experimentation and evaluation, and seeing that standards are developed and maintained.

Coordinating and Administering Responsibilities:

The burden of responsibility for coordinating and administering these inter-institutional programs should fall upon deans of colleges of education, superintendents of school systems, and directors of state departments of education. Although they hold the responsibility, they would delegate the coordination and administration of tasks to deputies, members of their staffs versed in teacher education and supervision. A great deal of the coordinating and administering autonomy must be left to the local cooperative instructional unit (a cooperative teaching center) if the total enterprise is to have the vitality which will produce instruction of quality and encourage experimentation.

In creating coordinating designs for planning and action the following organizational principles should be kept in mind:

1. To organize in such a way that there is always a legitimate route for the injection of new ideas from each party concerned. This requires a flexibility in organization which suits local situations, so that leadership can arise from various sources and not be swamped by a system or a tradition.
2. To arrange the power structure in such a way that university, state, and school are responsible for that which is peculiarly in their domains and bring to the partnership their special learnings and concerns. Hopefully one may influence the other, but one point of view should not wholly dominate what they do jointly. Perhaps the state becomes the mediator. Were student teaching to become so entirely dominated by the school view that it became practice teaching only, then the study of teaching is lost. Were it overwhelmed by the theoretical view of the university, then application is lost.
3. To set up organizational structures which are viable enough as institutions that they do not stand or fall on the strength of one or two enthusiastic personalities, but can exist through transitions caused by changes in specific personnel. So many of the great experimental projects of the past, particularly cooperative ones, fell by the wayside as soon as the key

persons who were excited about a certain project moved on to other vineyards.

4. To provide for a system of checks and balances of power to prevent one power block from overwhelming all the others. When genuine involvement of cooperating members ceases, then the structure falls and with it the program.
5. To plan on a gradual emergence of inter-institutional structure as individuals persuade others of need. Let the structure grow naturally and uniquely rather than falling into the trap of building a grandoise structure that does not fit and is, therefore, never used.
6. To insure that there are executive positions or officers designated in the structure whose duties are described and include the right to carry out the decisions of policy making and program planning groups. In the history of cooperation in education, there are too many examples of joint advisory committees which talked and talked, but never did anything.

These principles can be discussed, affirmed, or replaced with deliberation, but structured arrangements should not be made until educational and instructional goals have been set, nor before parties have agreed upon some sound principles of effective democratic organization.

A Composite Sample Model of Field Collaboration in Instruction in Teaching

The following coordinating and administrative structure is a generalized sample of how a state-wide, regional, and local "system" might be organized for instruction in teaching—the clinical phase of teacher education—and in instructional experimentation. It is *not* a recommended model, but rather, it is presented as a discussion piece for prompting innovative discussion. No matter what specific designs are developed there will need to be some advisory and working groups of representatives from the concerned institution at each level of planning and activity. Depending on the situation, councils and committees will vary in membership and have differing responsibilities and powers.

STATE-WIDE ADVISORY AND COORDINATING COMMISSION ON FIELD INSTRUCTION AND SUPERVISION IN TEACHING (twelve or sixteen members, three or four from each of the types of institution or agency)

REPRESENTATION:

State:

Department of higher education

Departments for elementary and secondary schools
Department for teacher certification
Department for educational research (ex officio)
Three leaders from appropriate professional organizations in an appropriate rotation system; i.e., AST; NEA affiliates: TEPS, DCT, ASCD, AASA, DESP, NASSP; teachers unions; etc.

Universities:

Office of dean or chairman of colleges, schools, or departments of education (a rotation system of representatives from teacher education programs will be needed). Include a coordinator of student teaching and a college supervisor.

School Systems:

Office of the superintendent of major systems involved in teacher preparation (a rotation system will be needed). Include a school principal and a supervising teacher.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. **Establish the responsibilities of schools, universities, and state departments in a coordinated program of instruction in teaching in school laboratories.**
2. **Set up guidelines for establishing local cooperative units and for regional coordinating councils, including new role definitions.**
3. **Encourage experimentation, evaluation, and innovation in teacher education programs involving schools through state-wide communication and dissemination systems.**
4. **Set minimum state standards—**
   a. **for cooperative arrangements and structures between schools and universities.**
   b. **for the preparation of personnel teaching and supervising in the local cooperative units.**
   c. **for the evaluation and approval of cooperative programs.**
5. **Devise state-wide fiscal plans for supporting a field clinical program.**
6. **Recommend enabling legislation to the state department of education where appropriate.**
7. **Establish guidelines for involvement of professional organizations.**
8. **Be a forum for the exploration of new ideas and for the evaluation of present activities.**
9. **Set up task forces to study various aspects of the operation and opportunities in it.**
10. **Advise state agencies on ways of facilitating state-wide policy and organization for field experiences in teacher education.**

STRUCTURE:

This is an advisory body to official state agencies, such as the department of higher education and the department of public instruction, as well as to the constituent institutions. Depending on the situation in each state, this commission could be called together under the auspices of the state superintendent, commissioner of education, a legalized professional standards board, or a state committee on teacher education. The commission would meet twice a year and as needed.

Officers:

A regular executive secretary appointed by agreement among official state agencies to keep a record of the commission's activities and to communicate formally the recommendation of the commission for action to the appropriate institutions

A chairman and vice chairman elected every three years by the commission. There might be need for a representative steering committee for building agenda and coordinating activities of the commission.

FINANCE:

The state department of education could pay a part-time salary for the executive secretary and the travel expenses for the members to meet in a central place in the state, or participating institutions could agree on a mutual budget for the commission.

REGIONAL IN-STATE COORDINATING AND FACILITATING COUNCIL (where needed[2])

REPRESENTATION:

Universities:

Coordinator of clinical instruction in teacher education. Selected professors and supervisors in charge of local cooperative units by rotation among universities.

School Systems:

Coordinators for teacher education services by rotation among school systems

Selected assistant superintendents or directors for curriculum and instruction, and school principals by rotation among school systems

Selected supervising teachers by rotation among the school systems.

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[2] In some large metropolitan areas, these regional councils will be inter-state, formed by the coordination of two or more states.

State:

Office of director of teacher education and certification.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Set up cooperative agreements and coordinating machinery—
    a. for setting up local cooperative instructional laboratory centers.
    b. for placement of students and withdrawal or changes of assignment.
    c. for basic student evaluation procedures.
2. Arrange for the sharing of facilities, personnel, and materials among universities and schools.
3. Develop plans for the in-service education of participating school and university personnel.
4. Encourage experimentation and innovation by devising means for sharing new ideas and efforts and for creating cooperative experimental programs.
5. Sponsor regional conferences and study groups about instructional problems and innovations for dissemination of ideas developed in local units.

STRUCTURE:

This council is advisory to the institutions represented, except in those areas where mutual agreements can be made. The representative will ask the responsible executive officer to sign the agreements or delegate decision power to the representative. The council would meet three times a year and as needed.

Officers:

An administrative and corresponding secretary, chosen from among the university directors of clinical instruction, for two- or three-year terms

A chairman, elected by the council members, to serve each year, alternating between school and college personnel

A representative executive committee for building agenda and making decisions between the meetings of the council.

FINANCE:

Cooperating universities and school systems will need to budget a small amount each year to be paid to the institution from which the administrative secretary comes to cover the cost of communication and of some released time for the secretary to prepare minutes, reports, and correspondence.

LOCAL COOPERATIVE (UNIVERSITY-SCHOOLS) INSTRUCTIONAL LABORATORY CENTER FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

This unit can be composed of the following kinds of combinations: one university team working with several designated schools in a system, one university with a cluster of designated schools from two or three systems geographically contiguous, or two or three colleges working with selected schools in a district. Schools might rotate in and out of centers over a two- or three-year period while others might stay in the combine longer as pilot schools. Teams of university and school personnel will work out cooperative procedures for management of the center and for instruction, clinical supervision, experimentation, and evaluation. They will probably want to set up two kinds of standing committees: a steering committee for administration and management and an instructional committee for program planning and joint instruction. The entire university and school staff involved in the center will form a faculty for the center.

STEERING COMMITTEE

REPRESENTATION:

University:

A senior faculty advisor in curriculum and teaching (clinical professor)

An instructor-supervisor (clinical instructor)

A professor of educational foundations.

School:

Office of the superintendent or district administrator (a school supervisor)

Two school principals in rotation from participating schools

A supervising teacher in rotation from participating schools, or directing teacher of interns.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Make policies for organization, management, and instruction.
2. Oversee the activities of the center, including the selection of supervising teachers.
3. Ameliorate conflict between school and university interests.

STRUCTURE:

An executive secretary to be designated by the university as a coordinator or director of the center

A chairman to be chosen by the school system in rotation from among the school principals

Meetings once a term as needed.

INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

REPRESENTATION:

University:

A senior faculty advisor in curriculum and teaching (clinical professor)

The instructor-supervisors (clinical instructor) assigned to the center

A professor of educational foundations

A student teacher or intern.

School:

A principal in rotation

A supervisor of curriculum

Two supervising teachers or directing teachers of interns in rotation from participating schools.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. **Plan the specific program of instruction (preservice and in-service).**
2. **Prepare materials for instruction.**
3. **Designate instructional duties of committee and staff.**
4. **Propose experiments in teaching.**
5. **Plan for induction of new supervising teachers into faculty.**
6. **Prepare instructional policies and general plans for the consideration of the faculty.**
7. **Take recommendations from the faculty and formulate them for action.**

STRUCTURE:

The university senior faculty advisor from the university and a school principal to serve as cochairmen

A university clinical instructor to serve as secretary and coordinator to put into action the program that has been planned

Meetings twice a year and as needed.

THE CENTER FACULTY

REPRESENTATION:

University: The team assigned to the center including:

A senior professor in curriculum and teaching (clinical professor)
A senior professor in educational foundations and/or liberal arts
Instructor-supervisors (clinical instructors).

School:

Principals of the participating schools
Curriculum supervisor assigned to those schools
Supervising teachers and directing teachers of interns.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Modify and approve general instructional plans proposed by instructional planning committee.
2. Be a forum for in-service education directed toward improving instruction in classrooms and in the teacher education program.
3. Make recommendations to the steering committee and instructional planning committee.

STRUCTURE:

Cochairmen: the university senior faculty advisor and a school principal in rotation from among the participating schools or elected from the university and school constituencies.

A secretary designated by the cochairmen:

Loads: University professors—¼ time in their teaching load
University instructors—½ time in their college teaching load
School principals and supervisors on committees—⅙ time
School supervising teachers—¼ time relief from their regular teaching assignments
School directing teachers for interns—½ time in their teaching load.

FINANCE:

Depending on budget decisions made at the state level, funds will be budgeted from the university and the schools, possibly along the following divisions. Some of the financing of school costs might come directly from state sources even though they might be budgeted through the universities involved with the particular schools.

University costs:

- University faculty team
- Instructional materials for seminars
- Research materials.

School costs:

- Salary increments for additional responsibility and work of participating teachers and administrators drawn from state funds budgeted through universities or state aid systems for approved cooperative programs only
- Released time for cooperating principals, supervisors, and teachers
- Classroom instructional materials.

Considerations for Assessing Partnership Structures

The emergence of cooperative structures between schools, universities, and state departments is occurring very quickly because of pressing population and logistical problems in teacher education programs, and because of public pressure to improve education and to find a solution to the acute teacher shortage. Because the next generation is going to have to live with the changes in institutional patterns that are designed today, those who are instituting the changes need to make them with deliberation. They also need to step back and away from their newly invented structures to assess their development from time to time. The following considerations are suggested as guidelines for such an assessment.

Questions to be asked about the organizational pattern:[8]

1. Do they allow for joint planning and decision making with school and college as equal partners, each with its own particular responsibilities and contributions?
2. Are responsibilities clearly and appropriately delineated between school and college among personnel from school, college, and other institutions?
3. Are roles defined sufficiently?
4. Are there means for injecting new ideas, experimental procedures?
5. Are there means for regular and objective evaluation of the project?

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[8] There have been two studies known by the author which investigated some aspects of collaborative organization:

Feinberg, Harriet. *Perspectives on the Research and Development Center*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1966. (Mimeo.)—Quoted in part later in this section.

Smith, Alfred G. *Community and Status: The Dynamics of a Research Center*. Eugene: University of Oregon.

6. Is there a system which can survive change in individual personnel and stand up to crisis?
7. Is the communication system simple enough to be economical of time, yet involve both parties?
8. Are there means for decentralizing or localizing some decision making and administrative functions so that bureaucracy does not take over?
9. Are the levels of decision making delineated so that everyone does not have to be checking with everybody else on everything?
10. Are there ways for grievances to be resolved fairly, but without excessive involvement of people and their time?
11. Is the organization efficient and economical in the use of people's time while still accomplishing joint activity?
12. Do channels of financing follow appropriate lines of power?

Issues to be raised and resolved:

1. Autonomies of participating institutions with new joint responsibilities in relation to their individual autonomies
2. Matters of control over students, teachers, pupils, program, and finances, what can be jointly undertaken, what powers must reside still within the individual cooperating institutions
3. Job delineation criteria for selection of personnel and training for the new jobs
4. Workable size of operational units, planning and decision making groups
5. Proper and effective representation of all parties involved in planning, policy making, and decision making
6. Joint financing: Since power follows dollars, which institution should receive and administrate the monies? How should monies be raised? Who should budget the monies and who should be responsible for monies spent?
7. Final responsibilities: Who will be accountable for what?
8. Continuity of joint leadership while maintaining flexibility
9. Appropriate coordinating and supporting roles of federal, state, and professional agencies that will insure freedom of local operation without domination.

The next sections present capsule summaries of examples of partnership arrangements that have been emerging in various parts of the country over the past several years. Commentary on the various types of organizations is made as introduction to the particular examples:

State Programs and Regional Councils
—Emmitt Smith

Cooperative Student Teaching Centers
—Louis VanderLinde

Affiliated Schools and Research and Development Centers
—Dean Corrigan

Collected comments by a representative body of school, university, and state department personnel are summarized by Chandler Barbour. Elaborations on the various questions, issues, and problems raised by cooperative enterprise are presented by Edward Ladd, Laszlo Hetenyi, Harriet Feinberg, Roy Edelfelt, Horton Southworth, and Patrick Johnson.

Morris Cogan has described the present state of school-college relations as an illicit relationship.[4] In regard to the future, he said: "What we need today for tomorrow's teachers is not a love affair but a working marriage that will legitimize our student teachers and all of our joint educational and research efforts." The possibilities for tomorrow are myriad if universities, schools, state agencies, and professional organizations pool their resources and imaginations for a greater day in teacher education.

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[4] Cogan, Morris. Comments made at the eighteenth annual meeting of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.: February 16-19, 1966.

PART II

Description and Analyses of Emerging Partnerships

E. BROOKS SMITH
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A number of examples of cooperative projects were presented during the Symposium phase of the Workshop as basis for discussion by critique groups. Capsule summaries of these presentations appear, following an introduction to each type of cooperative venture by the chairman of each Symposium:

A. State and Regional Approaches
B. Student Teaching Centers
C. Affiliated Schools and Research and Development Centers

A few additional examples are presented because materials about them were sent to the Workshop-Symposium for use in its deliberations or because descriptions were sent to the *Clearing House* for the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships at Wayne State University, after the publication of the Subcommittee's two reports on cooperative ventures and cooperative structures. Readers are referred to these two previous reports for descriptions of projects reported earlier and commentary on the beginning trends toward collaboration in teacher education.[5] The examples were selected because they have cooperative dimensions. No qualitative evaluation was made. Instead, certain cooperative features of them have been highlighted.

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[5] Smith and Johnson, *op. cit.;* and Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education, *op. cit.* The *Clearing House* has received several descriptions of cooperative arrangements which do not fit into the categories used for these books. Among them are a clinical "professor" program at Stonehill College in Massachusetts and a cooperative supervision program for beginning teachers jointly arranged by the University of the Pacific and the University of California at Berkeley.

A. State and Regional Approaches

EMMITT D. SMITH
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Approaches toward partnerships in teacher education at the state and regional level are increasing rapidly in description and in significance. Roughly grouped, there seem to be three categories of approaches emerging—the state approach, the state-federal approach, and the multi-state approach.

The State Approach:

The state approach attempts to influence teacher education through the cooperative development of evaluative criteria under state department of education leadership. This is probably the most commonly found approach toward partnerships in teacher education. The criteria, through this approach, are becoming more specific in the area of defining partnership between higher education, the elementary-secondary school, and the state department of education. Most examples of this approach are characterized by rather specific statements regarding the roles of the members of the partnership—the college coordinator, the supervising teacher, the cooperating school administrator, the student teacher, and in fewer cases the role of the state department of education. Most of these programs vary only in specificity of role functions and in origin of the movement. The majority of these partnerships have their origins in a teacher education council. Such states as West Virginia, Texas, Oklahoma, Georgia, and New Jersey are examples of this approach.

There are numerous by-products of the state approach which deserve mention. Some of these programs have developed proposed legislation which seeks to undergird the partnership with law. West Virginia and Texas are examples. Others have developed, through state department regulation, financial support for the partnership. Georgia is an example.

The State-Federal Approach:

The state-federal approach is a new approach toward partnerships in teacher education financed through Title V, Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The most outstanding example of this approach is perhaps the Pennsylvania Student Teaching Project which is summarized in this publication. Although this project is new, early reports indicate great potential. It is characterized by—

1. Expert planning, utilizing the best minds in the state.
2. Organizational involvement of higher education elementary-secondary education, and the state department of education.

3. The grass roots approach with a minimum loss of time and direction.
4. Legislative potential to undergird good intentions.
5. A willingness to study program in terms of actual problems as opposed to traditional, slow, program modification hoping to meet problems.
6. *Proper financing.*

The problem inventory already produced by this project is one of the most challenging documents of its kind.

The Multi-State Approach:

The multi-state approach toward partnerships in teacher education is also just emerging. Perhaps the best examples of this approach are the Multi-Teacher Education Project (M-STEP) and the Regional Educational Laboratory.

M-STEP includes Florida, Maryland, Michigan, South Carolina, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia. This project is also funded by Title V, ESEA. The project is new, but these characteristics are taking shape:

1. It is state department initiated and oriented.
2. It is widely representative by geographic location as well as state organizational type.
3. It emphasizes the encouragement of innovative exemplary programs at the state level and dissemination and utilization of information at the multi-state level.
4. It makes use of interstate planning utilizing the best professional minds in the multi-state area.
5. It includes exchange of professional personnel to meet specific needs.

Each state project emphasizes the partnership of higher education, the elementary-secondary school, and the state department of education.

The Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, with headquarters in Kansas City, Missouri, has selected teacher education as one of its focal points. This laboratory, funded through Title IV, ESEA, has already identified a number of projects involving the partnership between higher education and elementary-secondary education as they work together in the laboratory phase of teacher education.

Perhaps the most significant factor in today's activities related to the development of partnerships in teacher education at the state level is the use of federal funds from Titles IV and V, ESEA. At last, sufficient funds are being made available to provide the necessary elements for planning a partnership—manpower dedicated to the task from all participants in the partnership, leadership, materials, communication, and time purchased by the partnership. This planning phase of the development of effective partnerships in teacher education should move smoothly into the enactment phase involving legislation where it is necessary, or informal or formal contractual relationships where necessary. This enactment or implementation phase should be next to appear on the horizon.

Issues:

What are the issues at the state level which plague our efforts to establish effective partnerships in teacher education? In the approach toward partnerships described above as "the state approach," the central issue hinges on whether or not agreements reached in a cooperative atmosphere will be undergirded by law and/or regulation to the extent that proper financing is provided. This issue is particularly acute at the level of the elementary-secondary school—the partner which provides the setting for many professional laboratory experiences in teacher education. Many states reach the point where standards for the approval of teacher education programs are developed cooperatively: The standard concerning the laboratory phase of teacher education insists that proper experiences shall be provided; the elementary-secondary school shall provide the setting for these experiences; and that is the point where law and/or regulations stop. The problem of undergirding the teacher education function in the elementary-secondary school by law and/or regulation goes begging, and as a result no proper financing is possible—at least from the state.

The issue of "Who's In Charge Here?" is another issue that typically still confronts the state approach variety of partnerships in teacher education. A perfect partnership guarantees responsibility and participation to each partner commensurate with the degree of involvement of that partner in the enterprise. Too often this is not the case in teacher education partnerships between colleges and elementary-secondary schools. The degree of control of either party is often determined by the political situation rather than any objective evaluation of the degree of involvement. Either the college becomes the beneficent dictator, or the public school takes the matter out of the hands of the college. In many cases these positions are taken in the name of partnership. Perhaps this issue of "Who's In Charge Here?" is a result of immaturity of the school-college partnership. In most instances where difficulties arise in the area of roles of the two partners, it will be found that agreements have been on good human relations alone.

Another serious issue which arises in many states which have based teacher education partnerships on cooperatively developed approval or accreditation standards stems from the tendency to allow standards to rigidify practice. Although many sets of standards are developed to serve as growth agents, they soon become hard and fast planks in a minimum foundation program. When this happens, most programs use this minimum program as the maximum as well, and mediocrity sets in. Until states learn how to make orderly deviation from standards highly respectable, this tendency of standards to rigidify practice will continue to be a threat. This issue may be stated in another way as a continuous struggle with the status quo. Factors other than approval standards contribute to this problem. The tendency of any professional group, including teachers, to overrule challenging leadership with present practice puts present practice at the ultimate level and contributes to the status quo. Until states learn how to cope with this problem, professional decisions will continue to be made on the basis of political action rather than upon research or insightful leadership.

The introduction of federal funds has raised issues in teacher education partnerships which have their basis in the power of money. What kinds of projects are funded? What projects are denied? The issues which arise here become philosophical in nature, because opposing rationales for teachers education may be presented and supporting projects funded. These systems will thrive regardless of their relative worth because they are funded. Some groups look upon this new dimension as a threat; others look upon it as long overdue. One thing is sure: The introduction of proper funding in the area of building and establishing proper relationships between school and college will heighten issues, speed up the need for confronting them, and replace the conference era with an era of action.

The following list provides a wide sampling of state and regional approaches to partnerships in teacher education.

1. West Virginia's School-College Relationships for Teacher Education

Reporter:

Genevieve Starcher, director, Division of Teacher Preparation and Professional Standards, West Virginia Department of Education.

Collaborating Institutions:

The state's sixteen teacher preparing institutions, the county boards of education, the State Department of Education, and the West Virginia Advisory Council on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Purposes:

The reason for the association of the agencies named is the improvement in the quality of teaching by the upgrading of teacher education programs in West Virginia. An allied purpose is to give consistency to the teacher preparation procedures by developing criteria for programs in general professional areas and areas of specialization.

Administrative Structure:

The supervision of teacher preparation in the state is, by law, the responsibility of the State Board of Education and the State Superintendent of Schools. Through the years, however, the West Virginia

Department of Education has increasingly assumed a leadership role in the education of teachers. The Department of Education considers its function as being catalytic in working with educational forces that can produce solutions to the problems in education. The tie between teacher preparation institutions and the West Virginia Department of Education is strengthened, due to the fact that each tax-supported institution has one or more faculty members who are also staff members of the Department of Education. These persons, titled coordinators, have the responsibility of working with the schools in the normal service area of the college.

The West Virginia Advisory Council on Teacher Education has been the main vehicle used for upgrading the statewide program of teacher education. The Council has been instrumental in bringing about the cooperation among the educational agencies in West Virginia. It is the recommendations of this Council that the official Board of Education uses in making policy. The Council meets three times annually, in plenary session, with subcommittees working in accordance with the demands of the projects being undertaken. There is a self-perpetuating membership through professional organizations, and the Council has a close tie with the State Department of Education. The director of the Division of Teacher Preparation and Professional Standards serves officially as the liaison between the Council and the Department of Education.

Special Characteristics:

In 1963 legislation was passed in West Virginia that defined the relationship of the county school system and the colleges approved for teacher preparation in the conduct of student teaching programs. This legislation, which had been promoted by the Teacher Education Council and endorsed by the collaborating institutions, made provision for the State Board of Education to enter into a contract with a county board of education for the use of the public schools by colleges approved for teacher education. The provisions of this are noted in a publication entitled *Standards for the Accreditation of Under-Graduate Teacher Preparation Programs in West Virginia.* This action marked the beginning of the standards on teacher education that are consistent throughout the state, but are still based on principles that can be adapted to individual situations.

Since the standards were adopted in 1963, colleges approved for teacher preparation have been subject to preliminary program evaluations by committees of West Virginia educators selected from higher education and the public schools. Currently, committees composed of state and out-of-state educators make final evaluations after visiting college campuses. The standards for program accreditation include general education, professional education, and each of the teaching fields for which the college desires to educate teachers.

A new phase of collaboration is being undertaken in West Virginia as a pilot program for M-STEP is started. This is part of the seven-state student teaching project (M-STEP) financed by the federal government. This particular program will develop a county-wide student teaching center to be shared by four dissimilar colleges and and one university in the state.

Another project to be worked upon cooperatively by teacher education agencies concerns the three-year probationary period for beginning teachers. The task that these agencies will be delving into is to find ways of making this "provisional license period" the most fruitful experience for new teachers.

One other item of noteworthy collaboration is the arrangement between public schools and West Virginia University. For over fifteen years the university has arranged for a visiting committee of individuals from public schools to visit the campus one or more times a year to discuss teacher education problems. The idea has been to keep the public school people closely related to the teacher preparation programs at the university.

2. Development of the Student Teaching Program in Georgia

Reporter:

Mary Ellen Perkins, The Georgia Teacher Education Council, State Education Department, Atlanta, Georgia.

Collaborating Institutions:

The Georgia Teacher Education Council is the recognized body for developing policies governing the standards for programs for teachers within the state. The membership of the Council is composed of three groups. They include the public schools, the Georgia colleges approved for teacher education, and the State Department of Education.

Purposes:

The student teaching program in Georgia was developed as a part of the state plan for the evaluation and planning of the total program of teacher education. Between 1946 and 1948, the Council approved a plan for a program of preparation and certification which is currently in operation. The plan requires each teacher education institution to plan its own preservice program, which has to conform to a set of criteria developed by the State Council. The plan was designed to free Georgia colleges from existing certification restrictions.

Administrative Structure:

The Georgia Teacher Education Council is the recognized body for developing policies governing the standards for programs for teachers within the state. Each college has two official representatives named by the president. One representative is from the education department and the other from a department other than education. The representatives from the public schools are chosen by the departments of the State Education Association. Those from the State Department of Education include personnel having responsibility for teachers.

Patterns of Communication:

In the fall of 1948 the Preservice Education Committee of the Council on Teacher Education gave attention to the study of the problems of student teaching, with emphasis upon experience in typical school situations. The coordinators of student teaching from all the colleges engaging in a professional program for the education of teachers met regularly to give further meaning to criteria and to arrive at means to apply the criteria. In recent years the coordinators have met annually. The coordinator of teacher education services in the State Department of Education facilitated these meetings and gave leadership in working with the group. The State Department of Education provided secretarial help in bringing the group together and provided travel expenses and other necessary assistance.

As a result of the study on the state-wide student teaching program, regional groups were organized. The Rome Area Teacher Education Council and the Northeast Georgia Teacher Education Council have enlisted the aid of principals, supervisors, superintendents, public school teachers, visiting teachers, and college personnel to gain an understanding of the place of the public schools in providing professional education for beginning teachers.

Financial Arrangements:

Georgia has a state-wide program of compensating supervising teachers working with student teachers from all colleges engaged in teacher education. This system was developed through cooperative planning and agreed upon by institutions and public schools. The "honorarium" ranges from $20.00 to $50.00, dependent upon completion of basic standards met by supervising teachers. The honorarium is for work for a full student teaching term.

Special Characteristics:

Each college is responsible for planning its total program of student teaching. In the past several years colleges have planned innovations in organizing and scheduling the sequence of study in supervision courses. The sequence is offered by all graduate institutions and by a few undergraduate institutions as postgraduate work.

When the sequence is completed, the teacher may request the issuance of a duplicate certificate with "Supervising Teacher Service," or STS, added. STS may be added only after the completion of the total sequence.

There is still another source of continued improvement in the student teaching program. The individual college provides opportunity for principals and supervising teachers to come to the college campus to study with college staff members and to be given recognition by college staff members for the important work which they assume.

3. The Pennsylvania Student Teaching Project, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction

Reporters:

Clifford Burkett and Ronald Corrigan, Pennsylvania State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Collaborating Institutions:

The Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, the teacher preparing institutions in Pennsylvania, and the public schools of the state.

Purposes:

The basic purpose of this project is to upgrade the student teaching programs in Pennsylvania. This improvement is being attempted by examining the problems associated with student teaching and possible solutions for these on a state-wide basis.

Administrative Structure:

The Bureau of Teacher Education at the Pennsylvania Department of Education acts as the organizing agency for the student teaching project. This bureau set up a series of regional meetings in the state and invited representatives from the collaborating institutions to attend.

Patterns of Communication:

The DPI Bureau of Teacher Education is responsible for collating reports from the meetings that are held as part of the project. These reports are forwarded to personnel who are involved.

Financial Arrangements:

The project has been funded under Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The DPI has interpreted the provisions of the ESEA to include student teaching in the area of "establishment and improvement of programs to identify and meet the educational needs of states." The project funds are, however, for the current year only.

Special Characteristics:

In some ways this project has utilized a "grass roots" approach. The directors of the project have sampled the opinions of many people connected with student teaching in Pennsylvania, and they have also used the ideas of these educators in planning changes.

In connection with the project, the Bureau of Teacher Education has organized a Task Force of thirty of the outstanding educators in

Pennsylvania representing teacher preparing institutions and public schools. The Task Force has the responsibility of suggesting "proposals for action" in solving the problems identified during the regional meetings. These proposals were acted upon by the participants of a second series of regional meetings. The reactions have been used by the DPI in planning activities that the project members will seek to accomplish to insure a better student teaching program in Pennsylvania.

The following proposals have been tentatively accepted as project goals by the staff of the Teacher Education Bureau for the fiscal year 1966-67:

1. Organize a planning committee to study the possibility of establishing a "pilot program" in student teaching.
2. Plan and hold a summer workshop for the personnel involved in this pilot program.
3. Make carefully planned visits to several states that have well-organized state-wide student teaching programs.
4. Establish a Task Force to develop some broad guidelines for student teaching programs.
5. Plan and hold two series of ten one-day conferences so the participants can react to the materials and findings gathered by the personnel involved in the first four steps of "proposals for action."

4. Multi-State Teacher Education Project
M-STEP

Reporter:

Howard E. Bosley, director, Multi-State Teacher Education Project, 1101 St. Paul Street, Baltimore, Maryland.

Collaborating Institutions:

The State Departments of Education in Florida, Maryland, Michigan, South Carolina, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia.

Purposes:

The primary aim of the project is to find ways to pool national resources and to move cooperatively toward the creation of new and superior programs of teacher education by public and nonpublic institutional cooperation.

Administrative Structure:

M-STEP is a program of interaction that solicits the guidance and support of the most experienced and skilled specialists in teacher education. The state departments of education involved are working together in planning, previewing, and evaluating member state activities.

This is not seven different state projects, but one project that calls for a compact in which all seven states participate.

Each state will send a PERT (Program Evaluation and Research Technique) to the Baltimore central office. The central office will develop the master chart with its critical paths as a means of coordinating and channeling the seven-state program to its ultimate objectives.

Each state department of education has a director in charge of M-STEP, and these directors, together with the Multi-State Project director and associate director, make up the Project Coordinating Board. The Board formulates policy and evaluates the results of the various experiments. In addition, each state has a local coordinator in charge of its M-STEP project.

Patterns of Communication:

An advisory committee will be established in each state. Membership will include representatives from at least three other states, plus the members from the local state. The plan ideally calls for each member state to be represented on at least three such committees from the planning stage through to the ultimate evaluation of the seven local M-STEP projects.

A public information kit has been prepared and sent to representatives of the seven states. The kit includes forms upon which any member may submit information which it believes should be incorporated into the central office's public relations program on the regional and national level.

Conferences have been recorded on videotape for subsequent showing to persons associated with M-STEP in other states.

Financial Arrangements:

The project is being funded under provisions of Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Special Characteristics:

State Projects—

Florida is undertaking an extensive quantitative and qualitative analysis of capabilities and needs of professional personnel as a guide for curriculum emphasis in programs of teacher preparation and professional growth.

Maryland is developing a Demonstration Center for Student Teaching as a component of professional programs and as a resource for improving major aspects of teacher preparation in a state system of public and nonpublic colleges and universities.

Michigan is establishing regional centers for the coordination of laboratory experiences in teacher education and the development of agreements among local education agencies and the training institutions.

South Carolina is planning, developing, and producing videotapes as resource aids in student teaching programs.

Utah is focussing on the use of instructional media to improve laboratory experiences for preservice and in-service teachers. An attempt is also being made to introduce innovative modifications in teaching internships, student teaching centers, and block programs.

Washington is developing and extending cooperative programs of teacher preparation among and between teacher education institutions and public school systems, so as to relate preservice and undergraduate level preparation with in-service and graduate-level education.

West Virginia is establishing and administering a Pilot Center for Student Teaching, coordinating the efforts of local education agencies with teacher training institutions.

5. Washington — Project for the Orientation and Induction of New Teachers

Reporter:

Wendell C. Allen, assistant superintendent for teacher education and certification, State of Washington.

Collaborating Institutions:

State of Washington and the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS).

Purposes:

The objective of this project is to demonstrate how, within a given state, the combined efforts of educational institutions (both public and private), professional organizations, and state agencies can coordinate their efforts to (a) create new programs for beginning teachers, (b) reduce the difficulties new teachers face in their first years of teaching, (c) help new teachers develop their own style of teaching, and (d) develop a corps of highly competent career teachers.

Administrative Structure:

The superintendent of public instruction and NCTEPS staff members serve in organizational and facilitating roles. Specifically, the roles of the various groups are characterized as follows:

1. *Role of NCTEPS:*
    a. Develop plans for study, action, and evaluation.
    b. Be responsible for the developmental phase of POINT.
    c. Provide consultative, clerical, secretarial, and editorial personnel.

d. Provide the administrative coordinator who will assume major responsibility for leadership of the project.

e. Provide a teacher education information specialist who will be responsible for writing, speaking, and preparing materials for the project.

2. *Role of Superintendent of Public Instruction:*

   a. Be responsible for insuring that projects are within regulations established by State Board of Education.

   b. Maintain liaison relationship with NCTEPS through administrative coordinator and executive committee.

3. *Role of Advisory Committee:*

   a. Advise on all matters of policy in project planning and development.

   b. Communicate project development to constituent agencies.

4. *Role of Executive Committee:*

   a. Determine project plans and development with the advice of the Advisory Committee consistent with the policies of the superintendent of public instruction and NCTEPS.

   b. Organize and coordinate financial arrangements, reporting, revision, and evaluation of projects.

5. *Role of Administrative Coordinator:*

   a. Work closely with the SPI and NCTEPS in carrying out project plans and developments as determined by the executive committee of which he is a member.

   b. Work closely with office of Teacher Education and Certification for the State of Washington.

   c. Be responsible to the executive secretary of NCTEPS.

Patterns of Communication:

NCTEPS, through its executive secretary and personnel provided to the project, particularly the administrative coordinator and information specialist, provides the basic means of communication within and without the administrative structure of the project. The Executive Committee is the focal point for communications among participating organizations and project personnel, and provides for the flow of ideas concerning all aspects of the project.

Financial Arrangements:

Funds for the developmental phase of POINT were made available by NCTEPS, the Washington State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the Washington Education Association.

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Special Characteristics:

The project involves an unprecedented joint effort between a national commission and the entire educational resources of a single state in developing a planned, fully professional preparation program for teachers, including a six-year program in developing career teachers. Funds are made available to selected school-college cooperative efforts to provide models for the preservice and in-service preparation of beginning teachers.

6. In-service Supervised Teaching Program in New Jersey

Reporter:

Allan F. Rosebrock, director, Teacher Education and Certification.

Collaborating Institutions:

Fifteen New Jersey teacher training institutions, both private and public, and various participating school districts in New Jersey.

Purposes:

Schools employing personnel with emergency and provisional certificates attempt to provide extra supervisory help to teachers during their first two or three years of teaching. Emphases on the In-service Supervised Teaching and Seminar Program is placed on helping the teacher plan his daily and weekly program, develop teaching materials and methods of presentation, learn the fundamentals of classroom procedures, maintain good discipline, develop positive relationships with the class, evaluate the teaching program, and continually revise materials and techniques in light of experience.

The supervised teaching seminar is a unique program, designed and developed to meet the needs of the mature individual who is teaching under emergency or provisional certification, who desires to gain competencies in one phase of teacher preparation and to meet the requirement for certification in the State of New Jersey.

Administrative Structure:

The supervised teaching and seminar program varies from college to college, and from year to year at the same college. In the supervised teaching portion of the program, each participant shall be supervised by (a) a full-time staff member of the participating school system, and (b) a supervisor from the college who shall also be the instructor in the seminar sessions.

Patterns of Communication:

The college supervisor, the participating school supervisor, and the principal shall meet at the end of each term and prepare a written evaluation of the program and the exploration of professional ideas

relating to the program. The final evaluation of the participant should be made in joint conference between the school supervisor and the college supervisor.

Financial Arrangements:

The participating student must be enrolled in a complete program at the institution which is designed to complete the necessary requirements for full certification.

Special Characteristics:

Since 1960, the program has been a degree requirement for all employed teachers with emergency or provisional certificates working for a bachelor's degree in education. It has also been included in the new programs that have been developed at the colleges for in-service teachers who have a bachelor's degree, but who lack student teaching experience and who are working toward full certification and a master's degree. The program has now been established as a certification requirement for *new* applicants for substandard certificate who lack student teaching. The program was instituted in the fall of 1966 at fifteen colleges in New Jersey.

7. Wisconsin Guidelines for Field Experiences in Teacher Education

Reporter:

Lester M. Emans, School of Education, Wisconsin State University, Eau Claire, Wisconsin.

Collaborating Institutions:

Wisconsin Association for Student Teaching, the Wisconsin Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, and the Wisconsin State Department of Education.

Purposes:

The goal of the committee, developed by the collaborating institutions, was to develop guidelines dealing with the field experiences for teacher education programs in Wisconsin.

Problems of concern that are being considered are (a) the acceptance of the philosophy that the public schools have a vital role in teacher education programs, especially as they relate to field experiences, (b) the place of the State Department of Public Instruction in the programs, (c) the qualifications of the personnel involved, and (d) the funding of the programs by state and/or federal funds.

Administrative Structure:

It is suggested that the plan can be implemented and supervised by recognizing the following roles:

1. The Role and Responsibilities of the State Department of Public Instruction:

The state has a great responsibility for assuring the quality of these field experiences and shall assume the leadership for coordinating the field experiences of teacher education through "approved programs." The state shall provide for the funding of the field experience portion with state or federal funds administered by the Department. The necessary sums shall be provided in the budget of the Department. These sums go directly to the public schools after certification of their eligibility, this latter being furnished by the teacher education institution involved.

2. Role and Responsibilities of the Public School Systems:

The boards of education must support a cooperative effort between their local school systems and the institutions of higher learning. The hierarchy of the school district, from the superintendent to the student teacher, is involved in the program.

3. Role and Responsibilities of the Teacher Education Institutions:

The leadership role is placed upon these institutions. The dean of the school of education or the director of teacher education in the various colleges has the overall responsibility for leadership in the program.

8. Toward a State-Wide Policy on Student Teaching Requirements for Non-Standard Students in Ohio

Reporter:

David L. Clark, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Collaborating Institutions:

The Ohio Council on Teacher Education (OCTE), The Ohio Association for Student Teaching, and the Ohio Education Association.

Purposes:

The basic purpose of this project is to develop a course of action in the interest of having a state-wide policy on student teaching requirements for non-standard teachers in Ohio. The proposals noted in the position paper are an attempt to better meet the needs of students who did not complete their student teaching requirements during the course of their college programs.

Administrative Structure:

It is proposed that teacher preparation institutions develop, with the leadership of the State Department of Education, a professional consensus on a state-wide basis which may serve as a foundation for official state action on the certification of non-standard students. This is offered to modify the standards for certification and teacher education that now exist.

Patterns of Communication:

A survey of current practices in dealing with existing student teaching and program policies and procedures concerning non-standard teachers was completed and a course of action was proposed on this basis. The burden for providing effective channels of communication rests with the OCTE and the Project Advisory Committee as the agency through which flow the ideas and questions from the various schools and colleges in Ohio. As the Ohio State Department of Education becomes more involved, this responsibility may be shared.

Financial Arrangements:

The Ohio Education Association provided funds for the survey and for promoting the proposals developed in the position paper.

9. Guidelines for Student Teaching in Florida

Reporter:

Florida State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

Collaborating Institutions:

Florida Association for Student Teaching, the Florida State Department of Education, and the Teacher Education Advisory Council Subcommittee on Student Teaching.

Purpose:

The purpose of Guidelines for Student Teaching in Florida is to improve the quality of teacher education in the state by improving the quality of the student teaching experience. It is intended for all agencies involved in the preparation of teachers.

Administrative Structure:

The "guidelines" were cooperatively developed by the members of the Student Teaching Subcommittee of the Teacher Education Advisory Council of Florida. The rationale for student teaching, the definition of terms, roles, descriptions, and the organizational chart for student teaching were endorsed by the writers of the guidelines. These were endorsed with the intention that they will be reviewed and revised as research and experience with student teacher programs indicate needed changes. The guidelines also include sections on assignment and evaluation of the student teacher. Laws and regulations pertaining to the student teaching process are also summarized.

Patterns of Communication:

This publication was prepared under the Multi-State Teacher Education Project. It was supported with funds granted under Section

505 of Title IV of Public Law 89-10 (Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965).

10. Central Minnesota Teacher Education Council (CMTEC)

Reporter:

Floyd Perry, St. Cloud State College, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

Collaborating Institutions:

St. Cloud State College and thirty-six participating school districts.

Administrative Structure:

A constitution, which was cooperatively developed and agreed upon, serves as a guide for the Student Teaching Council. This Council, which has representatives from each school district and the college, has an executive committee which serves as the policy making body for the cooperative student teaching program. The membership of this committee consists of three public school administrators, three supervising teachers, and three college faculty members. The executive committee attends to all annual budgets, and plans and conducts an annual student teaching conference. It may also conduct other conferences and workshops that it deems necessary.

Patterns of Communication:

The policies made and approved by the Council are published in the *Student Teaching Handbook,* which also contains much of the information vital to the everyday functions of the student teaching centers. This *Handbook* contains suggestions to guide public school administrators, supervising teachers, student teachers, and college personnel. It indicates goals, objectives, definitions of terms, and individual roles. In addition, it establishes responsibility for developing and continuing communications between and among all parties concerned with the teacher education process.

Financial Arrangements:

The student teacher pays a tuition fee of $68.00 for a quarter of full-time student teaching. Of this amount, the college pays $64.00 to the student teaching center. The centers allocate $30.00 as a stipend for the supervising teacher, $14.00 for operating expenses for the Student Teaching Council and the executive committee, and $20.00 for professional improvement experiences within the centers.

Special Characteristics:

An elementary school teaching internship is now under way as a result of council recommendation. In selected centers five first-year teachers are assigned to work under the direction of a master teacher who serves as full-time supervisor. A college supervisor works with the master teacher and serves as the coordinator of the internship program within the center.

B. Cooperative Student Teaching Centers

LOUIS F. VANDERLINDE
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Wayne State University

The rapid development of Cooperative Student Teaching Centers in the past three years has provided a variety of models which may be examined by those wishing to develop or expand a cooperative program. The variety of organizational patterns, administrative structures, and procedural operations exhibited in the descriptions of Centers included here reveals the impact of local field conditions on cooperative structures and suggests problems to be avoided as well as guides for action.

A Cooperative Student Teaching Center is a field unit for the supervision and instruction of student teachers and teacher interns. A Center generally consists of fifteen or more student teaching stations and/or internships located in schools in proximity to each other. Responsibility for the supervisory and instructional program usually rests in a committee of college and school personnel. The assumption of joint responsibility for the practice phase of professional preparation represents a "grass roots" approach for developing truly cooperative programs of teacher education. The intensive nature of the involvement of cooperating teachers, principals, and other school personnel is resulting in a better "fit" between the needs of students and the unique conditions in a given school district.

Patterns of Organization:

A variety of patterns of organization is evident in the summary of cooperative Centers included here. Differences are seen in administrative structure, supervisory practices, policy making, planning, instruction, evaluation, operational procedures, size, and scope. Representation on the steering committee is from both the college and the schools. In some cases, each school building is represented; in others, school representatives are chosen from among the several buildings on a rotating basis. Students may be assigned to supervising teachers on a one-to-one basis, to the principal for flexible placement, or to a team of teachers and college supervisors.

Teams of four to eight students may be placed in one building or they may be scattered among the buildings in the system. Evaluation may be a team effort or it may be done unilaterally with a minimum of communication. Responsibility for planning, supervision, and instruction may be broadly based or it may reside with a limited number of people.

Objectives and Underlying Assumptions:

The generalized goal of cooperative Centers is improvement in the quality of the student teaching experience. A major assumption in developing Centers is that neither the colleges nor the schools can do an effective job alone; that, in fact, the best results will emanate from cooperative effort. Another assumption is that new patterns of cooperation are needed to bring about desired educational change. Such assumptions give rise to the more specific objectives of cooperative Centers: (a) to facilitate communication between the college and the schools, (b) to broaden the base of responsibility and decision making, (c) to develop a professional team engaged in teacher preparation, (d) to organize more efficiently to carry out policies and procedures, (e) to provide in-service education of supervisory personnel, and (f) to provide a framework in which experimentation and analysis of teaching may take place.

Activities:

While the various Centers have unique dimensions and are developing in a number of directions, they have a number of common characteristics. The Centers are bringing the schools and the colleges more closely together where joint responsibility is taken for planning and decision making and in establishing operational procedures. Teams of school and college personnel are engaged in critical examination of the laboratory phase of professional preparation as it relates to local needs. These teams share responsibility for planning the experiences which the student will have in the school laboratory.

New administrative structures are being formalized. New roles and responsibilities are being defined which will permit a Center to be relatively autonomous and flexible. They contain built-in means for adjusting to local needs and generating self-improvement. Rather than crystallizing present practices, they provide avenues for the free exchange of ideas and encourage decision, experimentation, and action. Policy handbooks, statements of operating procedures, and similar documents are being developed in many of the Centers. Councils, committees, advisory groups, and supervising teams have been established and are being refined as new responsibilities are met. Greater articulation of school-college relationships is accomplished as these two institutions identify their unique contributions to the professional preparation of teachers and work together to create quality programs.

Cooperative Centers appear to be stimulating mutual trust and confidence and expanding the base of decision making. Lines of communication are being opened which enhance articulation of expectancies and which increase points of contact, enabling the total staff to make full use of available resources. Centers are now accommodating pre-student teaching observation experiences. In some instances, the Center program has been expanded to include work in the foundation areas and in methods in the off-campus setting with the instructional load being shared by college and school personnel. Seminars and college courses for in-service teachers are being held in off-campus Centers.

Centers are providing a setting in which experimentation and innovation more readily take place. A variety of media is being used. Television and other recording devices are used in the analysis of teaching. Simulation techniques and devices are being tried and evaluated. Instruments for analyzing the teaching act are being developed and tested. In-service teachers and principals, as well as students and college people, are encouraged to use the instruments to improve practices. "Students of teaching" may become the more useful name for those who are placed in a teaching Center.

Questions and Issues:

Major questions resulting from an examination of the summaries of cooperative Centers center on control, role definition, scope, and finance.

1. *Control:*

The descriptions of cooperative Centers included here indicate that the practical and professional problems in teacher education make cooperation imperative; and that Centers seem to be a likely means by which issues may be resolved, problems solved, and the profession strengthened.

The colleges have, in the past, retained almost full control of programs of teacher education. This autonomy is being challenged by those who believe that the college should not be solely responsible for guiding and certifying practice. They argue that the schools are prepared to provide laboratory settings and proper supervision and evaluation. Implementation of this concept requires new relationships which enhance the development of joint responsibility and control. Cooperative Centers may be the vehicle, but they do not automatically resolve the basic problem of control.

If cooperative programs are to be developed and expanded, colleges and schools must work forthrightly and honestly to establish policies that clarify spheres of responsibility and increase the areas of joint control.

These questions need to be answered:

a. What are the unique resources and areas of competence of the college and of the schools in specific situations?

b. What areas of responsibility may best be assumed by the college? The schools?

c. In what areas traditionally controlled by the college is it prepared to share responsibility? Similarly, what areas traditionally the domain of the schools are now open to shared responsibility with the college?

2. *Role Definition:*

Most of the cooperative Centers are managed by a committee composed of college and school personnel, and therefore, delegation or assumption of certain responsibilities defines roles. Handbooks and statements of operational procedures contain role descriptions and delegate authority through statements of college and school expectations. Role descriptions indicate the areas and degree of contribution of the college and the schools.

The redefinition of old roles, and the creation of new ones, are emerging to blur some of the issues of control.

Here are some critical questions that need answers:

a. Have avenues been established which permit examination of role relationships?
b. How are conflicts in roles ameliorated?
c. Are role expectations being systematically analyzed?
d. Which roles have not been defined? Which roles are anticipated and what procedures exist for definition and clarification?

3. *Scope:*

Many of the programs described indicate an expansion of the teacher education program in the Center through off-campus classes, consultation by college personnel, in-service education experiences conducted by college and school personnel, workshops, dialogues, and the like.

Expansion of the Center to include instruction in methods and in foundations raises important questions. Decisions about which courses should be taught in the Centers will be answered in terms of the willingness of the college to run the risk of sharing control of this phase of teacher preparation, and a consideration of which courses might best be taught off-campus.

Answers to these questions are needed:

a. Which courses are best suited to the field situation? What changes in content and procedure will result from the move away from the campus?
b. What changes in structure and format will be needed?
c. Who will be responsible for instruction? Evaluation and grading?

4. *Finance:*

Quality programs cost money and the Centers are no exception. College and school personnel indicate that increased time and other resources are imperative and that the usual forms of financing are inadequate. Joint financing and grants from the government and foundations are temporary in nature.

A large part of the success of the Centers is due to the professionalism of the participants and their willingness to contribute their time and energy. However, practical problems of staffing and providing classrooms, other space, materials, and equipment are demanding additional financing from sources already pressed. Other sources are now being identified.

These questions must be answered:

a. Have both the college and the schools determined a per student cost figure for their program? How much money is needed for a quality program? What sources are available?
b. How are problems of finance affected by teacher contracts? Is released time being used to full advantage? At what cost?
c. What are the advantages and disadvantages of state aid and federal aid for Center operation?
d. Who should finance experimentation and research? Demonstration teaching? Television and other media?
e. What items should be financed by the college? The schools?

The descriptions of the cooperative student teaching Centers which follow should assist in identifying patterns of organization suitable to specific situations and aid in avoiding many of the problems encountered by those reporting.

1. Harvard Student Teaching Centers

Reporter:

Steven J. Fisher, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Purposes:

These Centers were created in response to a concern on the part of Harvard and the area public schools participating in teacher preparation that student teachers were not receiving proper guidance in the problems of curriculum development and teaching. Furthermore, it was felt that more time should be devoted to the instruction of student teachers while they were actually resident in the schools, and that student teacher and supervisor schedules should be so adjusted as to allow for instruction of a high order.

Administrative Structure:

Currently in operation are Centers in mathematics, social studies, French, and English. These Centers are simply an administrative arrangement within the schools whereby supervision is given highest priority and through which the schools demonstrate their commitment to the rendering of special attention to student teaching. Specifically, each Center is directed by a resident supervisor. These supervisors are appointed jointly by the schools and Harvard. They are paid by both institutions and hold an appointment at the University as well as being members of school faculties. The resident supervisors were selected from Harvard faculty, doctoral student population, and school faculties. They had all worked with student teachers in several of Harvard's teacher preparation programs, demonstrating their effectiveness as supervisors, and all of them indicated an interest in making supervision an important part of their careers. A few brief examples of resident supervisors may be instructive.

One of the resident supervisors is an associate professor on the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Prior to his appointment as resident supervisor, he had lectured in the public schools while also teaching history at Harvard. While completing his master's and doctorate from Harvard, he taught in several public school systems, gaining many years experience as a secondary school teacher and as a supervisor of student teachers. Another resident supervisor is a well known high school teacher of English. During the past several years of his career, he has devoted considerable time to the coordination of student teaching programs in his school. He also has served for many years as supervisor in several Harvard programs. He, therefore, brought to his appointment a considerable amount of experience in supervision and the organization of student teaching programs. One resident supervisor in math is currently an advanced graduate student at Harvard. A teacher of several years experience, she has done considerable work in supervision as a Harvard teaching fellow and was the recipient of a National Science Foundation grant for experienced teachers which allowed her to do research on mathematics curriculum.

It is important to note that these and the other resident supervisors are all involved in curriculum projects as part of their supervisory role. Supervision at the Student Teaching Centers is not construed to mean only the analysis of teaching, but also the teaching of curriculum. Both social studies resident supervisors are engaged in curriculum development projects, and they involve student teachers to the extent desirable in the creation and trial of curriculum materials. A similar situation exists in most of the other Centers. In addition, a group of the resident supervisors are devoting time to the development of instructional materials concerning the supervision and analysis of instruction. Curriculum development and supervision are, then, considered as inseparable components of the task of the resident supervisor.

Typically the resident supervisor will teach one or two classes a day, often utilizing curriculum he has been developing. The rest of his time is devoted to supervision, usually of eight student teachers. Some of these teachers are supervised directly by the resident supervisor, and some are placed with competent members of the school staff. These cooperating teachers are responsible to the resident supervisor for the supervision of particular student teachers and meet with him to discuss problems that arise in preparing student teachers. The resident supervisor will visit classes of all student teachers, and will hold conferences with student teachers and cooperating teachers, either together or separately. In addition, the resident supervisor holds supervision staff conferences with his cooperating teachers where individual student teachers or common supervisory problems are discussed.

Patterns of Communication:

The important features of this arrangement are that the resident supervisor is identified and recognized by school and university as a person competent in his field and in supervision. He is available in the location, the school, where situations demanding his attention will arise. He is thoroughly familiar with the school—its curriculum and distinctive organizational features. The resident supervisor is readily available. Time is provided for him to supervise and with this provision goes a mandate to do his job well.

Special Characteristics:

Evaluation of this pilot year of the Student Teaching Centers, based on questionnaire responses of student teachers and interviews with resident supervisors, indicated that this arrangement created problems, but was definitely worth pursuing and perfecting. A brief summary of the results of the evaluation is provided here.

Questionnaire responses indicated, in general, that the supervisors, resident and other, in the Student Teaching Centers were judged to provide more consistent high quality supervision and more concern for the professional development of student teachers than the supervisors in a traditional supervising teacher situation. Some of the supervisors in a traditional setting did provide excellent supervision, but their impact was limited to one student teacher. The Student Teaching Centers not only made it possible for a resident supervisor to affect more than one student teacher, but the arrangement also provided the student teacher with more in-school contact with a supervisor for observation, analysis, and planning. Student teachers clearly indicated the value of this increased time commitment in the curriculum oriented type of topics discussed, the higher rating they gave to the supervision, and the type of autonomy enjoyed.

Autonomy is probably the point where the difference between the two arrangements is striking. One half of the student teachers in a traditional setting stated that their autonomy was based on lack of assistance by, or contact with, their supervisor and that success was due to personal initiative and drive. Most of the student teachers in the Student Teaching Centers tied autonomy to the professional and personal respect they enjoyed during almost daily contacts with their supervisors. Even a general rating of "helped improve my teaching" shows the supervision in Student Teaching Centers clearly superior. In summary, the questionnaire response showed that the Student Teaching Center provides more time for supervision, a tone of professional analysis of teaching, a high degree of autonomy for the student teacher, and concern for more fundamental issues in the teaching of children.

A major conclusion to be drawn from the interviews with resident supervisors is that the nature of school or university involvement on the part of resident supervisors influences their perception of the role in a very essential way. The resident supervisor who has strong ties to the University tends to emphasize his function as one of bringing new ideas to the school and influencing change in curriculum. He sees supervision as helping the student teacher develop in terms of becoming personally comfortable with the curriculum. The resident supervisor, whose fundamental allegiance is to the school, sees supervision more as induction of student teachers into school life. Rather than emphasizing in-service work for experienced teachers on curriculum, he tends to stress the importance of training supervising teachers in supervision and of developing criteria for the selection of supervising teachers.

It would seem necessary, therefore, that if the work of the resident supervisor is to be construed as supervision-curriculum development and not one or the other, then the "jointness" of the school-university appointment must be made more firm. To effect this possibility, the following steps are suggested: participation of resident supervisors in methods courses and tutorials; staffing an academic year supervision institute with resident supervisors as well as utilizing resident supervisors in the Harvard Summer Institute in Supervision; and arrangement of school class schedules to allow resident supervisors to participate in faculty meetings, colloquia, and the various subject area meetings.

The efficacy of continuing the Student Teaching Centers and expanding them where possible is, however, indicated by the following: (a) positive student teacher comments about supervision received in the Centers contrasted with somewhat less favorable student teacher comments concerning traditional supervising teacher arrangements; (b) resident supervisors agreed that this new role afforded more opportunity for supervision and curriculum development; (c) resident supervisors commented in effect that the new role—its status and authority—breathed new life into their teaching careers.

One of the general problems in the Student Teaching Centers arrangement has already been noted. How can this arrangement be made to insure involvement of supervisors in the life of the University? More work needs to be done to make the joint appointment firmer. This will mean still greater commitment on the part of the schools to flexibility; that is, resident supervisors must be allowed to come and go freely from school to university. Such activity must be considered as a critical part of their work. On the other hand, resident supervisors must be conscientious and responsible for balancing the time and efforts spent in the two institutions.

Another problem also places an additional burden upon the schools, but is essential if the schools are committed to teacher preparation. Specifically, this is the matter of finding and training supervisors. Clearly academic year training institutes in supervision are a logical next step to the establishment of Centers where supervision is emphasized and practiced by competent personnel. The resident supervisor should not only be a supervisor of student teachers but must also become to a great extent a teacher of supervisors. How can this best be accomplished within the academic year? Or should such training be confined to summer institutes? If so, how must such institutes be designed to articulate adequately with the regular work and problems of the school year? Are there staffing arrangements which lend themselves particularly well to the supervision of student teachers and commensurately to the training of supervisors? These are questions which must be confronted if Student Teaching Centers are to be perpetuated.

On the face of it, the Student Teaching Center idea is fairly simple: competent people, time, money, and settings where these are allowed to work toward desirable results. Possibly, it is the last of these—settings—that is the most difficult to establish, but without the schools becoming increasingly involved in teacher preparation, university teacher education programs might as well roll up their scrolls of pedagogy.

2. University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Student Teaching Center

Reporter:

Wesley J. Matson and Grace Lund, School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee; Lonnie Adams and Margaret Lederle, Milwaukee Public Schools.

Collaborating Institutions:

Milwaukee Public Schools, Glendale Public Schools, and the College of Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

Purpose:

The central purpose of the Centers is to bring about a closer relationship between school and college by integrating the facilities, personnel, and philosophy of these institutions.

Administrative Structure:

Consideration of the unique nature of student teachers, cooperating teachers, supervisors, and the problems of different teaching experiences is effected by offering an elementary integrated course which emphasizes the interrelationship of theory and practice. The instructor of a student in the integrated course supervises the same student in his laboratory experience, which consists normally of four nine-week sessions in a variety of grade levels and socio-economic situations. Placement of a student teacher is done jointly by school and University personnel. Flexibility in the integrated course revolves around the problems of the student in training. The course is developed around curriculum planning in the elementary school and methods in language arts and social studies. It is scheduled to meet for three two-hour sessions per week.

The cooperating school personnel supplement and enlarge upon the areas of the integrated course through cooperatively planned activities in the school Centers. They are also called upon to teach various sessions of the integrated course, which is facilitated by a University-paid substitute program. Other activities for cooperative personnel related to professional growth are encouraged by this substitute program.

Patterns of Communication:

Communication between the College of Education and cooperating public school personnel is a continuous process as a result of the very concept of integration in this program. The public schools provide information sessions for college personnel to show current developments in the system and sociological factors influencing the curricula in the schools. Also used is a *Student Teaching Handbook and Newsletter*, which is sent to all personnel.

Special Characteristics:

A special feature of this program is the scholarships provided by public schools and the University jointly, for training supervisors of student teachers in the analysis of teaching.

3. University of Utah, Cooperative Center for Teacher Education

Reporter:

Paul Hansen, University of Utah.

Collaborating Institutions:

Utah State Department of Public Instruction, the Salt Lake City School District, and the Granite School District. As the scope of the program broadens, other school districts will be included.

Purposes:

The principal objectives of this project are (a) to establish optimal conditions for student teaching, and (b) to develop a mechanism for cooperative work in improving the curriculum for teacher education and the curriculum for the public schools in a way which overcomes discrepancies in basic concepts and operations.

Administrative Structure:

The administrative direction of the Student Teaching Centers will be in the hands of the Administrative Council, which is made up of the following:

Assistant dean, College of Education, University of Utah

Head, Department of Education, University of Utah

One member each from the Colleges of Letters and Science, Business, and Fine Arts, University of Utah

Deputy superintendents for curriculum and pupil services for the Salt Lake City and the Granite School Districts

Deputy superintendent for instruction, State Department of Education.

The Student Teaching Center Faculty is an organized group composed of all personnel directly involved in the program at the teaching Centers, all University supervisors of student teaching, the University members of the Administrative Council, and those representatives of the State Department of Public Instruction who take part in the program. This Faculty meets once or twice each year, to review the program, to consider recommendations from the Student Teaching Center Faculty Council, and to make recommendations to the Administrative Council pertaining to the operation of the program and to the curriculum of the schools and of the teacher education program of the college.

The Student Teaching Center Faculty Council is a smaller Council which meets as it desires to prepare recommendations for the Student Teaching Center Faculty. The major work of preparing these recommendations will be done by three subcommittees. The membership of the subcommittees noted above is made up in the following way:

1. Subcommittee on Management of Student Teachers:
   The University of Utah student teacher placement director,
   A school principal from each school district,
   A student teacher supervisor from the College of Education,
   A teacher personnel director from each of the participating school districts,
   An elementary and secondary school teacher from each school district,
   A representative of the State Department of Public Instruction.
2. Subcommittee on Curriculum for Teacher Education:
   The chairman of the University Curriculum Committee for Elementary and Secondary Education,
   A faculty member each from the Colleges of Education and Letters and Science,
   The elementary and secondary directors of each school district,
   A classroom teacher from each district,
   The director of teacher personnel of the State Department.

3. **Subcommittee on Curriculum for Public Schools has the same directors as the previous subcommittee.**

Financial Arrangements:

Student teachers will pay an additional registration fee which will be matched by the University in the form of a stipend to be paid all cooperating teachers.

4. Cooperative Teaching Centers
Wayne State University
and the
Detroit Public Schools

The following four descriptions of Cooperative Teaching Centers in various regions of the Detroit Public School District are examples from six such Centers for teacher education at the elementary school level. They have come about through the collaboration of Wayne State University's Department of Elementary Education staff, the staff of the Detroit Department of Continuing Education, and the field executives and their staffs in each region:

George Owen, divisional director, Department of Continuing Education
Charles Stewart, Department of Continuing Education
Gertrude Kirkwood, Department of Continuing Education

Field Executives:

Region #4—Julia M. McCarthy
Region #5—Florence C. Jacque
Region #7—W. Dean Edmundson
Region #9—Arnold R. Meier

4a. Wayne State University, College of Education
Region # 7 Kettering Area
Student Teaching Center

Reporters:

Clement Kaye, Kenneth Goodman, and David Allen.

Collaborating Institutions:

Department of Elementary Education, Wayne State University; and Region #7, Detroit Public Schools.

Purpose:

The purpose of this Center is to establish a cooperative educational environment between Region #7 of the Detroit Public Schools and the College of Education at Wayne State University. This venture was

undertaken to improve the quality of the teacher education program and the local school district educational program through planning an in-service education program and to develop research insights into the teacher education process as it exists within an inner city school and community environment.

Administrative Structure:

The Center is administered by an Outer Planning Committee which is composed of the following members:

- Field executive—chairman (1)
- Principal from each participating school (11)
- Sponsoring teachers (3)
- College advisor (1)
- College coordinators (2)
- Supervisor of instruction (local district) (1)
- Representative of Continuing Education Department (local district) (1)
- Others selected by the Committee.

The Planning Committee meets once each month for the purpose of reviewing and forming Center educational policy.

Special Characteristics:

The activities of the Planning Committee are many and varied. They include (a) developing plans for student teaching seminars, (b) developing in-service educational programs for the supervisory staff, (c) developing evaluation devices and other educational activities and assignments appropriate for the Center, (d) encouraging and developing insights into teaching and the teaching process within the inner city community, and (e) utilizing the educational leadership qualities of the professional staff through cooperative involvement and planning by the local district and college personnel.

All policies are formulated within the policy framework of the local district and the College. Educational policy problems may originate at any point within the administrative structure. All educational personnel associated with the Center are participants in the decision making process. Problems of a policy nature may be identified at the classroom, building, or Center administrative level and requests for policy review may be made directly to the Planning Committee.

Responsibility for the development of the student teacher is divided among the student teacher, the supervising teacher, the building principal, and the college coordinators. Levels of responsibility have been defined in the guideline booklet entitled "Guidelines for Participating Building Principals." Limited copies are available.

Financial Arrangements:

All activities have been accomplished within the normal budgets of the Detroit Public Schools and the University.

4b. Wayne State University, College of Education
Region # 9
Student Teaching Center

Reporters:

Virginia B. Morrison and William Ray

Collaborating Institutions:

College of Education, Wayne State University; and six urban elementary schools comprising the Detroit Region #9 Teaching Center.

Purposes:

The main purpose of this Center is to improve the quality of the student teaching experience by serving as a laboratory experience for both student and supervising teachers in the problems of educating culturally different youth. Allied purposes are to serve as an implementing agency of theory to practice in areas of professional standards, curricular design, and evaluation; to facilitate communication concerning the roles of all personnel involved in the student teaching experience; and to disseminate findings of current applicable research.

Administrative Structure:

The policy making body is a Steering Committee composed of school and college personnel who formulate policy for the entire Center operation within the framework of policies of the local school district and the University. The present Committee is comprised of two supervising teachers, two assistant principals, one principal, two College of Education faculty members, and a representative of the Continuing Education Department.

Patterns of Communication:

The Steering Committee meets monthly to review the effectiveness of the Center and recommend revision as needed. An orientation meeting for supervising teachers will be held each quarter, preferably before the quarter begins. One additional supervising teacher seminar will be held during the quarter.

An orientation seminar for student teachers will be held each quarter prior to the first day of student teaching contact. Four additional student teacher seminars will be held during the quarter.

Financial Arrangements:

This program functions within the regular college and school budgets.

Special Characteristics:

Videotapes of teachers working in urban elementary school classrooms have been used in both supervising teacher and student teacher seminars. Attempts are being made to acquaint administrators, supervising teachers, and student teachers who work in this Center with the

Revised Observer Schedule and Record II (ROScAR II) observational technique for recording classroom behaviors.

4c. Wayne State University, College of Education
Region # 4
Student Teaching Center

Reporters:

Helen Suchara and Charles W. Smith.

Collaborating Institutions:

Department of Elementary Education, Wayne State University; and the Detroit Public Schools.

Purpose:

The purpose of the Center is to combine the human and physical resources of an urban school district and an urban university in order to further the study and practice of teaching.

Administrative Structure:

Region #4 is an administrative district within the Detroit Public Schools. The Center is divided into two "constellations" of schools. The Center Constellation, which is in the inner-city complex of Detroit, has six cooperating elementary schools, while the Ford Constellation, which involves seven cooperating elementary schools, is located in a suburban-type setting. The names of the Centers were derived from the high schools which serve each constellation of cooperating schools.

A Steering Committee, which meets at least once each quarter to evaluate current practices and policies, is the governing body of the Center. The membership of the Steering Committee, which is broadly representative of the various positions at the school and college, consists of the college supervisors, one person from each cooperating school (either a supervising teacher, assistant principal, or principal), the graduate faculty advisor, and the Region #4 field executive. Representatives of the Continuing Education Department of the Detroit Public Schools and of the Directed Teaching Office of the University serve on the Steering Committee to relate the committee's work to the total policy framework of the local school district and the University.

Special Characteristics:

Each student is requested to remain in the Center for both of his student teaching contacts, one in an inner-city setting and the other in a suburban-type setting. This device enables the staff to work with a student for two consecutive quarters. The planning for his seminars for the second contact are done in the light of knowledge gained during his first contact.

A newsletter, which is published four times during the academic year, is used to keep cooperating personnel informed of Center activities. All past, present, and potential supervising teachers in the schools in the Center, as well as all of the district's administrators, receive copies.

4d. Wayne State University, College of Education
Region # 5
Student Teaching Center

Reporters:

James E. Kerber and Donald W. Protheroe, college coordinators; E. Brooks Smith, college advisor; and George Monroe, Detroit Public Schools.

Collaborating Institutions:

The Region #5 Teaching Center is a cooperative extra-institution involving the combined personnel and facilities of the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne State University.

Purpose:

The purpose of the Center is to combine the human and physical resources of the school and college in order to further the study and practice of teaching.

Administrative Structure:

Region #5 Teaching Center is made up of eight schools within the Region #5 area of the Detroit Public Schools. The Center is guided by a Steering Committee made up of the field executive, the administrative head of the region; four school principals (one of whom serves as Steering Committee chairman); one college advisor, who is a graduate faculty member; two college coordinators; one educational psychologist; and a representative of the Continuing Education Department of the Detroit Public Schools. The chairmanship of the Steering Committee rotates among the school principals. Each principal serves for three semesters, one semester as chairman of the Committee.

Bi-weekly seminars for student teachers and quarterly meetings for sponsoring teachers are planned by the Center Instructional Committee. This Committee is made up of one principal, two supervising teachers, two college coordinators (one of whom serves as chairman), one educational psychology consultant, and one college advisor. The college coordinators execute the plans of the Steering Committee and the Instructional Committee.

Patterns of Communication:

The college coordinators, being responsible for the execution of the plans of the committees, also have the primary responsibility for keeping all personnel informed as to Center activities and committee actions. Most of this communication is in the form of at least weekly visits to each school and to each teacher in the Center. Notices and minutes of all meetings are sent to the public school's administrative center and to the college departments involved.

Financial Arrangements:

Since a goal of the Center has been to be as free from the necessity of seeking financial support as possible, little financial aid has been necessary. A small fund was started in 1964 with five dollar contributions from each school to help host schools pay for expenses incurred by student teacher seminars and faculty meetings.

The internship program described below is supported by the Detroit Public Schools and the College of Education of Wayne State University. Detroit has authorized the interns to be paid the equivalent of one-quarter of a beginning teacher's annual salary. This amounts to $725.00 for each of the four interns for the semester. The College of Education supports the program by allowing additional college credit for the internship and by allowing a slightly reduced work load for the college coordinators working with the internship units.

Special Characteristics:

During the winter and spring of 1966, a cooperative teaching approach to student teaching in one of the Center schools was started. This venture involved four students, each in his initial student teaching experience, in a program of observation and cooperative planning and teaching. The program emphasized the development of skills in the analysis of teaching.

A cooperative team internship for undergraduate students who have successfully completed an initial student teaching contact has been established. This program involves two student teacher interns assigned to each of two classrooms and one teacher-director who is responsible for the two classrooms. The program stresses close cooperation and planning by the interns, the teacher-director, the college coordinators, and the college advisors.

A pilot project for the use of media in the supervision of student teachers was also completed during 1965-66. Television tape and 8mm. film were tested in an attempt to determine the value of these media in the analysis of teaching and for more effective evaluation of the performance of student teachers. The results were encouraging to the further use of these media, particularly the videotape.

5. Southfield Student Teaching Campus

Reporters:

Helen McIntyre, director of elementary education, Southfield, Michigan; Chandler Barbour, Hans Olsen, and Daniel Michalak, Wayne State University.

Collaborating Institutions:

College of Education, Wayne State University; and the Southfield, Michigan, Public Schools.

Purposes:

The primary purpose of this Center program is to establish and refine a beneficial student teaching program for Wayne State University elementary education students. Allied purposes are to promote in-service education for supervising teachers in the public schools and to fully use the resources of the college and the public schools.

Administrative Structure:

The basic administrative plan is that three Wayne State University staff members work jointly with the elementary supervisor and the building principals of six elementary schools in Southfield. This group, known as the Center Coordinating Council, acts as the policy making group for the student teaching programs. The second level of the organizational plan is the "Building Team" that operates in each school. The Building Team is composed of the elementary supervisor, the building principal, members of the staff who work with student teachers, and other staff members who can and wish to participate.

Patterns of Communication:

Since most planning and evaluation is done in meetings of the Coordinating Council and the Building Teams, direct communication is the standard procedure. Each quarter a report of the Center activities is circulated by the college advisor to the members of the Council and other interested persons. A less formal report, in the form of a newsletter, is circulated periodically to all members involved in the Center. This carries suggestions and procedures that all persons are encouraged to discuss.

Special Characteristics:

Student teachers are assigned to cooperating schools in the Center after being interviewed by members of the Coordinating Council working as a team. Each of the assignments provides for flexibility in the experiences that a student needs for professional growth.

The Center structure makes provision for full use of the resources of the staff and facilities in the schools. The embodiment of this is the "building approach." Basically the building approach is a form of team supervision that utilizes the full resources of a school staff in conjunction with the supervising personnel from the college. Some unique values of the building approach in the Southfield Center are that it provides a vehicle for the introduction of new supervising personnel; it contributes to the in-service growth of supervising teachers; it stimulates the reexamination of the school goals and objectives by the school personnel. (see Schacht)

The building principal contributes significantly to the operation of the student teaching program in the cooperating schools. While overseeing many of the organizational aspects of the activities in the student teaching program, he also functions as a leader in the Building Team meetings and as a consultant in building seminars.

College personnel are involved in all features of the Center operation. They cooperate with the school personnel in operating the team approach to the student teaching program. Their role is one of leadership in introducing ideas to the Center, of facilitating Building Team operations, of service as resource persons to the school staff, and of supervising student teachers.

Observer schedules and recording techniques are currently being introduced to the student and supervising personnel in the Center. The use of these has been to record and analyze the teaching behavior evidenced by student teachers.

6. Student Teaching Center, State University College
Buffalo, New York

Reporter:

James H. Young, State University College, Buffalo.

Collaborating Institutions:

The State University College and the public schools of North Tonawanda, New York.

Purposes:

The following purposes appear to be operating:

1. To help student teachers gain an overall picture of teaching, rather than the narrow view of teaching specific lessons at a particular grade level
2. To find a clearer definition of role responsibilities in student teaching situations
3. To provide a greater variety of experiences, materials, and resources
4. To develop closer communication between the public school administrators and college officials as a team approach in improving professional standards.

Administrative Structure:

Joint decisions on this project are made by the college supervisor and the director of elementary education in the North Tonawanda Schools. The school system contributes to the venture by providing qualified supervising teachers, office space for the college staff, and secretarial help. The college provides various resources such as audio-visual listings, speakers, and bureau resources to the North Tonawanda Schools.

Patterns of Communication:

Due to the limited scope of the project all communication is done on a direct and personal basis.

Special Characteristics:

Supervisory procedures in this project include frequent and long observations followed by three-way conferences between the college supervisor, the supervising teacher, and the student teacher. Opportunities are made available for personnel involved in the project to visit other classrooms in the school system. Seminars involving the public school faculty members are held periodically.

Another interesting aspect of this program is the inclusion of the student teachers in the orientation for new teachers in the public schools. This four-day conference includes a bus tour of the community, grade level meetings, and an introduction to the school system philosophy on matters of planning, evaluation, and curriculum.

7. Inner City Teacher Education Project (ICTEP)

Reporter:

Roy Jorgensen, Central Missouri State College.

Collaborating Institutions:

Central Missouri State College and Kansas City Public Schools.

Purpose:

The central purpose of the project is to prepare teachers to work with culturally different children.

Administrative Structure:

The supervision of the project is done by an interdisciplinary faculty team working with faculty members of the Kansas City Public Schools. Three full-time staff members from Central Missouri State College are assigned to the program to supervise student teachers, to administer the "block program," and to work with the "pre-block" students.

Special Characteristics:

Volunteers are recruited from the group of education majors during the second or third term of their sophomore year at Central Missouri State College. These students are advised to take a minimum of nine hours from sociology and psychology electives prior to enrolling in their two-term professional "block" experience.

During the first term of the "block," students are placed in a flexible schedule which provides seminar type classes, small group instruction, individual instruction, field trips to the inner city, observations, microteaching situations, and independent study. In addition to professional subject matter, students meet and confer with Kansas City public school personnel who have been given released time by the school system to work with the project. The Human Relations Center of Kansas City cooperates by arranging opportunities for students to confer with representatives of private and public agencies concerned with the inner city (Urban League, CORE, NAACP, Psychiatric Receiving Center, the juvenile court, the police department, homes for children, and housing authorities).

The second term of the two-term block involves student teaching in inner city schools of Kansas City. Three full-time staff members are assigned to supervise these student teachers, administer the block program, and work with the preblock students. The equivalent of a full-time staff member is allotted and several members (e.g., a sociologist, a reading consultant, a psychologist, and a research specialist) of the staff contribute in special capacities.

C. Affiliated Schools and Research and Development Centers

DEAN CORRIGAN
Associate Professor of Education
University of Rochester

Any institution moving into a cooperative program, or planning to begin a program, should do so with the benefit of the learnings of colleagues who have had firsthand experience in such ventures. Through this approach, anticipation of the problems which may emerge and the planning of intelligent action to identify and meet these problems as they occur may help to avoid such problems entirely. More intelligent planning should be possible if thought and action regarding new cooperative projects is shared and critically analyzed. It is important, then, to analyze problems and pitfalls encountered by others as well as the successes of others. When viewed from this perspective, the summaries of programs which follow can be a valuable resource. It can also be seen that no theoretical design or program developed for another plan can serve as a "prescription" in a new situation. Each new program, if it is to serve specific educational purposes, must emerge from the unique context in which it will function and be planned by those who will put it into action.

This brief introduction is intended as a general appraisal of a sampling of cooperative programs. The objectives and activities of the programs and differences in organizational arrangements are discussed here, and certain questions and issues are raised. These questions and issues are crucial to the success of new cooperative ventures.

Organizational Patterns:

There are certain differences in the types of cooperative projects summarized in this section. They fall into two general categories: (a) affiliated schools and (b) Research and Development Centers.

Within each of these broad categories, the programs differ in their specific purposes and in the scope of their activities. For example, some programs in each category focus on basic research, while others in the same category hold teacher preparation as their primary function. The size of the programs and the institutions participating in the programs also differ greatly. One of the programs involves several states, while another program involves only one higher education institution and several affiliated schools. However, within this diversity of organizational patterns, common objectives and underlying assumptions seem to apply to all programs.

Objectives and Underlying Assumptions:

The overriding goal of all programs is one which has been perplexing American education from its beginning—to shorten the distance between thought and action, to make the discoveries of educational research operational.

Each of the programs presents alternative ways to break down the major barrier to educational change: the excessive compartmentalization of schools, universities, state departments of education, teacher education programs, and the public.

An underlying assumption that seems to have given rise to the establishment of the programs is that new, comprehensive institutions are needed to foster educational innovation and improvement. Another assumption, evident in the multi-institutional character of the projects, is that educational change depends upon effective patterns of cooperation among several different elements in the educational interaction system. This includes universities with their research competence; schools with their ability for practical experience and implementation; state educational agencies where political responsibility for education is lodged; and other industrial, social, and cultural agencies with their special talents.

Activities:

The wide variety of activities carried on by affiliated schools and Research and Development Centers includes (a) conducting basic educational research; (b) developing cooperative field testing and evaluating; (c) disseminating research findings (which includes the actual operational incorporation by the practitioner of new skills, techniques, and strategies), and (d) preparing educational personnel for leadership in such activities.

These activities all assist in the implementation of productive educational change.

Questions and Issues:

Four of the many questions and issues which come out of an analysis of the program descriptions are:

1. ***The Meaning of Partnership:***

The rationale provided for the programs described is based on the belief that educational improvement requires a partnership. However, an analysis of the programs may prompt one to ask whether or not a real commitment to partnership exists. For example, the major emphasis of the projects is on what resources the universities have to offer the schools. Yet very little emphasis is given to the idea that the schools have resources—in ideas, people, and materials—which could improve the universities.

In the past, people from the schools have been used by the colleges to instruct pupils or have worked in schools as supervisors of interns or student teachers. However, the notion of bringing school personnel into contact with university personnel to teach them is an entirely new concept. Past practices have labeled the college person as the expert. Furthermore, the present structure of the college has not lent itself to the whole concept of in-service education, especially by school personnel. Yet, most college people are quick to agree that in-service education is a good idea for the local schools. Those universities which do have in-service work tend to hire other college personnel as their consultants.

With education so rocked with change that the need for continuing education is being universally accepted, it would seem sensible to place great value on knowledge gained from the day to day implementation of new programs taking place in the schools. Teachers who have tested innovative ideas are excellent resources for colleges, as well as other schools, and ought to be used as such. College people must have the opportunity to share ideas about, and participate in, innovative programs in education if they are to make the university relevant to the needs of students and teachers in today's schools. Instead of one-way flow, the concept of partnership involves a continuous cycle in which all the partners have a mutual influence on one another as they perform their major functions of research and development, field testing and evaluation, and installing new practices in the schools. If a true partnership were to emerge, the partners would jointly control and have a commitment to sharing. A new institution can be created by this joint action. In this new setting, both college and school personnel should begin to feel comfortable admitting that they are both learners and searchers.

This kind of relationship is necessary if there is to be in-depth examination of alternative solutions to educational problems based on knowledge of theory and practice.

2. *Clarification of Role Relationships:*

A variety of linkages connecting the various institutions involved and descriptions of shared roles, structures, and personnel are described.

In most cases, the descriptions of programs spell out the roles of those involved in the interaction system of the Research and Development Center or in the affiliated school organization, but they do not define personnel and/or inter-institutional roles in relationship to other position occupants or institutional functions. Also, there is very little emphasis on procedures developed to study and/or discuss role relationships.

Furthermore, a new affiliated schools program or a Research and Development Center, when viewed as part of the total interaction system of education in the country, takes on certain functions that must be defined in relationship to other institutions. The following questions are therefore appropriate in any analysis of new cooperative ventures:

a. What procedures have been developed to systematically examine role relationships, including role expectations, among those holding the same position as well as those holding different positions in the interaction system?

b. What are the roles and responsibilities on which there is agreement or conflict among the colleges, schools, and other agencies participating in the program? In what areas can problems be anticipated? What procedures and understandings need to be developed on the part of all of the position occupants in the schools, colleges, and state and federal agencies in order to enhance role relationships?

c. What should each institution involved in a cooperative venture continue to do? What should it forego to other institutions or change within the institution? What are the special functions of an institution when it is viewed as one segment in a total matrix of other educational institutions on the state and national scene? For example, where does the program fit into other state and federal programs?

3. *Nature of Financial Support and Its Effect on Program Development:*

Most of the new programs described have been given initial impetus by financial support provided mainly by recent federal legislation and foundation grants. What is true in this case is true in all other phases of education: in addition to desire, hard work, knowledge, and imagination, one other ingredient is needed to bring about educational change—that ingredient is money.

However, there is a danger in being lulled into complacency by the current level of interest in, and support of, education projects by financing agencies. New ways must be developed to communicate the value of these new programs to the public who ultimately must support them if the programs are to be established on a permanent basis.

Many of the programs described are faced with a "phase out" clause in their future. As a result, personnel are unduly caught up in the dilemma of seeking new funds for program continuation and attempting to develop the program now in existence. This affects program development in time wasted as well as the type of projects undertaken. Long range, in-depth projects cannot be developed with confidence, because their future funding is uncertain. As a result, the types of projects undertaken may be limited in scope and shallow in their attempts. A stable support base is sorely needed.

4. *Reactions to the Research-action Continuum Rationale:*

All the programs described accept the idea that a process of educational change includes research, development, demonstration, and dissemination, and that each phase must be related to the other in order to draw upon and be shaped by the other. There seems to be agreement that institutional overlap is necessary to provide for needs at each of the stages of educational change.

The programs do not deal directly with the research-action issue, but it may be well to be reminded that consensus on this question has not been reached. Examples of different views on this question are those stated by Lee J. Cronbach[6] and H. M. Hamlin.[7] Cronbach fears neglect of the university's basic function of inquiry, whereas Hamlin suggests that the research-action continuum will strengthen, not weaken, the research effort.

Regardless of what happens in the future, one thing is certain—the role of the university in bringing about educational improvement is changing and will change even more as time goes on. The emergence of these new cooperative organizations on the educational scene has already caused changes in the university by forcing a re-examination of its functions. Present activity represents the confrontation stage. Even while the smoke rises from the fires of debate, we must give attention to the coordination of efforts so that new discoveries will have immediate and maximum impact on the improvement of education. This is a challenge confronting all of us.

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[6] Cronbach, Lee J. "The Role of the University in Educational Improvement." *Phi Delta Kappan* 17: 539-45; June, 1966.

[7] Hamlin, H. M. "A Former Colleague Comments on Remarks by Lee J. Cronbach." *Phi Delta Kappan* 18: 6-7; September, 1966.

The descriptions of programs which follow will undoubtedly raise other questions and issues which have special relevance to the programs in your institution.

1. The League of Cooperating Schools for Research and Development University of California, Los Angeles

Reporter:

John I. Goodlad, University Elementary School, University of California, Los Angeles.

Collaborating Institutions:

Nineteen school districts located in nine counties of southern California; the University of California, Los Angeles; and the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (IDEA, Kettering Foundation).

Purposes:

By combining "inside" and "outside" resources to give freedom and support to the participating schools (one from each district and the University Elementary School), the "individual" schools will become settings for the implementation of ideas originally researched at the laboratory school and for generating significant new problems and ideas. Stated another way, innovation and the demonstration and dissemination of these innovations, with emphasis upon the freedom "for high risk taking," are the principal purposes of the program.

Administrative Structure:

The organization represents a tripartite agreement among the nineteen school districts, UCLA, and IDEA. School district participation is conducted through a single, designated school. The superintendent serves as the liaison official between the school district and the League's administrative offices in regard to all matters of district policy.

Patterns of Communication:

Communication between the League and the participating schools, the faculties of those schools, and the districts is transmitted primarily by the principals of the designated schools who meet twice monthly in regular League meetings. Communication with a larger network of schools is envisioned through the demonstration-motivation division of IDEA.

Financial Arrangements:

Some commitment by all participating institutions is implied, including "certain resources of the School of Education's new Research and Development Center" (federally supported).

Special Characteristics:

The schools selected for participation are large and small, urban and rural, with abundant and meager resources; thus, they present a microcosm of a larger population of schools, and the planned change in the League schools will serve to create models for educators elsewhere.

A group of doctoral students has been recruited to serve as consultants, conduct research studies, and otherwise participate in the program.

2. Campus School Program for Research and Development
Division of Elementary Schools
Board of Education of the City of New York

Reporter:

Robert J. Fanning, Division of Elementary Schools, Board of Education of the City of New York.

Collaborating Institutions:

New York City Public Schools; Bank Street College; Brooklyn College; City College; Fordham University; Hunter College; Long Island University; Marymount College; Manhattan College; New York College of Music; New York Medical College; New York University; Notre Dame College of Staten Island; Queens College; St. John's University; St. Joseph's College; Teachers College, Columbia University; Wagner College; and Yeshiva University. Presently, there is a total of thirty-nine public elementary schools affiliated with the above mentioned colleges and universities of the New York City area.

Purposes:

The objectives of the program are to improve the preservice and in-service development of teachers; to provide for testing of methods, techniques and materials, research, experimentation, and demonstration; to provide for the free flow of information between school and college staffs through inter-visitation, joint studies, projects, and programs.

Administrative Structure:

The administrative personnel are college representatives, Elementary Division staff members, field executives, and the principals of schools chosen to participate. The field executive is familiar with teacher training personnel. He is also aware of the educational problems of the schools in his area and thus is responsible for bringing together the colleges and schools. His role allows for determining the availability of college staff to work with school personnel on the use of new ideas, methods, and materials. Any or a combination of the following can initiate a college-affiliated school relationship: the school principal and teachers; the college officials; the field assistant superintendent.

Example: When a school staff desires assistance in trying out a new idea, the principal and his staff work with the field executive who explores the idea with the college representatives. If the school's request is approved, joint action is taken.

Patterns of Communication:

The *Campus School Exchange,* a magazine, and occasional large meetings provide for an interchange of ideas and information. The college and the Board of Education each has a liaison officer to aid in coordinating common efforts.

Special Characteristics:

The student teaching program is intensified by concentrating programs of one college in one or two public schools. Many of the current projects are being conducted in special service schools. The major concern in these projects is to consider the special needs of pupils in the socially disadvantaged areas. Groups of college personnel are allied with social work personnel in these endeavors. Several schools send teachers to college seminars in a personnel interchange program.

3. Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching

Reporters:

Robert N. Bush and Nathaniel L. Gage, Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University.

Collaborating Institutions:

The School of Education and other colleges of Stanford University along with other cooperating colleges and schools.

Purposes:

The two tasks of this emerging Center will be (a) to redesign the role or task of the teacher and (b) to write something on the relatively blank page that is reflected in the relationship between teacher behavior and pupil behavior.

Administrative Structure:

The codirectors, appointed by the dean of the School of Education, work with a nine-member policy-making Administrative Board which is representative of the Center faculty, the faculty of the school, the central administration, the total faculty of the University, the cooperating colleges and school systems, and the State Department of Education. A five-member executive committee advises the codirectors on the implementation of policy. A large twenty-five to thirty member advisory board is planned.

Patterns of Communication:

Communication within the Center will be effected through the established committees and by interaction among the Center faculty, research associates, research assistants, and affiliated institutions in projects and seminars. Broader dissemination of research project findings will, for the first year, be the responsibility of the individual project teams.

Financial Arrangements:

The Center was founded under a U.S. Office of Education contract which provides 3.5 million dollars in federal support for the first five years.

Special Characteristics:

The program projected for 1966-67 includes sixteen programs in three areas: (a) instruction and its effects upon students (six programs); (b) teaching roles and their institutional setting (two programs); and (c) services to the Center (eight programs on units such as teaching clinic, abstracting, methodological services, and field stations which serve the main program areas).

4. Center for Cooperative Action in Urban Education
Rochester, New York

Reporters:

Herman R. Goldberg, City School District of Rochester; and Dean Corrigan, University of Rochester.

Collaborating Institutions:

City School District of Rochester and the College of Education, University of Rochester. Also included as participants are cultural, industrial, and other educational agencies in the Rochester area.

Purposes:

The goal of the Center is to bring about total community involvement in seeking solutions to the complex problems facing urban education. Some specific and immediate purposes are (a) to develop curricular content and materials that are consistent with the life of an urban community; (b) to provide a setting in which students and teachers may visit and observe the community at work, including business, industry, the humanities, and the sciences; and (c) to develop new preservice and in-service teacher training programs specifically related to urban education.

The first major project of the Center was the development of the "World of Work Elementary School." This is a demonstration center that serves as a laboratory to test new content, materials, and organizational concepts suitable for urban education. The concept here is to develop a miniature community that focusses on "the world of work as opening up the world of life." The resources of the community are utilized as the concepts of basic economics are employed in instruction through direct exposure.

The school includes children from all school zones in the city and accepts pupils from suburban school districts.

Other projects that the Center has developed and plans to expand are (a) a community Resource Workshop for teachers interested in studying the utilization of community resources, (b) teacher training programs specifically related to urban education, (c) conferences on urban education problems, (d) sponsorship of institutes for teachers that are funded through federal grants, and (e) teacher and student inter-city and inter-suburban exchange.

Administrative Structure:

The plan for the Center for Cooperative Action has been initiated by the City School District of Rochester. The District appoints a director for the project, and this person works with a representative of the University of Rochester in administrative functions. An Advisory Committee, broadly representative of the industrial, cultural, and educational resources of the region, has been brought in to coordinate planning efforts for projects to which the Center has been committed.

Financial Arrangements:

The Center has been funded under the provisions of Title III of the ESEA. This federal grant represents the main support for the programs. However, some support comes from industries in Rochester.

Special Characteristics:

The Center has established projects that give clear evidence of the commitment that the participants have made to share resources and services. The partnership among the higher education, cultural, business, industrial, and social agencies of the Rochester area is unique and shows great promise for the development of a significant model program.

5. A Dispersed Supplemental Educational Services Center for the Genesee Valley Region of Up-State New York

Reporter:

Dean Corrigan, Genesee Valley School Development Association, Rochester.

Collaborating Institutions:

University of Rochester, State University College at Geneso, St. John Fisher College, Catholic Schools in the Diocese of Rochester, Memorial Art Gallery of Rochester, Industrial Management Council, Catholic Secondary Schools in Rochester, Rochester Area Educational Television Association, Rochester Civic Music Association, New York State Board of Regents, and the public school systems of the region.

Purpose:

The purpose of this Center and its sub-units is to provide educational and cultural opportunities for children and teachers in the region. This facility will serve as a clearinghouse in the Genesee Valley Area for the dissemination of the latest research innovations in learning, teaching, and curriculum. Various communications and service systems will serve the nine county region and utilize the enriched resources found in that area by monitoring programs back to the member schools.

Financial Arrangements:

The estimated annual operating budget for the Center will be about $984,000. Federal grants are expected to be the major financial support.

Administrative Structure:

This undertaking has been funded under Title III of the ESEA. The Genesee Valley School Development Association has been approved as the administrative agent.

Special Characteristics:

Unique features at the Centers are broken down into eight components which reveal the breadth of this emerging endeavor. They are the following:

1. Instructional strategies unit: The purpose of this unit is to provide the development of services, instructional materials, ideas, and equipment for teachers and students.
2. In-service education for teachers and other personnel: Local university personnel will help in the development of new techniques for in-service training for teachers of that region.
3. Television center working with Rochester area television: The objective will be to obtain maximum use of ETV.
4. Library center: Personnel from here will coordinate and assist acquisition activities throughout the area.
5. Data processing: Personnel will create (with computer assistance) and transmit learning units of instruction.
6. Coordination and evaluation of experimentation: The computer will be used to assist in evaluating innovative projects, and these will be transmitted by the Center.

7. **Museum:** The educational program of the Rochester Museum in the area of arts and sciences will be brought to students and adults in the nine county area.
8. **Art gallery:** The Center will help bring and extend services of this cultural resource to students and adults.

6. Research and Development Center, University of Wisconsin Project Models

Reporter:

Doris Cook, Project Models, University of Wisconsin.

Collaborating Institutions:

The University of Wisconsin and public school districts in Janesville, Madison, Milwaukee, Racine, West Bend, and Manitowoc, Wisconsin.

Purpose:

The purpose of Project MODELS (Maximum Opportunities for Development and Experimentation in Learning in the Schools) can be broadly defined as the promotion of efficient pupil learning in the cognitive domain. Particular concentration is on concept learning, problem solving, and related cognitive abilities.

Patterns of Communication:

A sharing of the experimentation at the Research and Development Center is made possible through monthly seminars at the Center, newsletters, and local school seminars. Colloquia are held regularly whereby professors on campus as well as visiting professors share information with the specialist assigned to work with schools.

Special Characteristics:

New arrangements are being made for conducting research in the cooperating school districts rather than in laboratory schools which may have limited relationship to the regular school. The new organizational unit is called the Research and Instructional Unit. These units involve the teachers more directly in the process of educational research.

Provisions are made for an organization which will eventually allow local school systems to conduct research on their own problems, initiate and evaluate innovations, and develop and maintain exemplary instructional systems.

Through the combined efforts of local schools, institutions of higher learning, and state departments of public instruction, Project MODELS is being developed to promote long-term research activities which will have a more lasting effect on the schools.

The active leadership of the learning specialist is the key to the successful operation of Project MODELS. Although he shares the responsibility with school administrators and state department workers, the learning specialist occupies the key position in instituting and coördinating activities relating to instruction, research, innovation and development of new programs, and diffusion of information to participating school buildings and school systems.

7. The Learning Research and Development Center
University of Pittsburgh (LRDC)

Reporters:

Joseph I. Lipson and Robert G. Scanlon, The Learning R & D Center, University of Pittsburgh.

Collaborating Institutions:

The major working relationship between the LRDC at the University of Pittsburgh and a public school system is with the Baldwin-Whitehall School District. Contacts have been made, and some work has been started between the Center and other school districts in Pennsylvania and other states.

Purposes:

The purpose of the Learning Research and Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh is to structure the scientific foundations for improved educational practices. The Center is incorporating the combined efforts of subject-matter scholars, engineers, and behavioral scientists in education toward the common goal of developing theories of instruction and principles of teaching. It is hoped that the efforts can result in the development of a technology in education that will provide the teacher with tools and procedures based upon the findings of scientific research and development.

Administrative Structure:

The Center as a whole is directed by University personnel, assisted by representatives from the public school systems. This group along with the Board of Visitors Field Staff makes periodic reports to a nationally oriented consultative group, the Board of Visitors.

In the beginning stages of the LRDC (the Oakleaf Project at that time), the planning was done by contacts between top level administrators from the University and the public school system. Supervisory personnel assumed direction later. Presently many individuals in the public schools and the Center are involved in the day to day operation of the school experiments.

Financial Arrangements:

The Center operations are funded by the U.S. Office of Education and the University of Pittsburgh. Additional grants have come from the A. W. Mellon Education and Charitable Trust, the Buhl Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation, the Office of Naval Research, and Westinghouse Research and Development Laboratories.

Special Characteristics:

The work of the LRDC is along two lines: (a) projects, research, and development which are large scale programs; and (b) exploratory research which consists of programs of interest to individual investigators. These endeavors are directed by members of the Center faculty. Two projects which are representative of the experimentation in the LRDC are noted below.

The Individually Prescribed Instruction Project. **The attempt in this experiment is to initiate individualized instruction in the fields of reading, science, and arithmetic. The other subjects are taught in the customary manner. This program has as its goals: (a) to restate certain elementary school curricula in terms of a continuum of behavioral objectives; (b) to help the teacher define her function in this type of program; (c) to provide necessary material and techniques for the program; (d) to develop a sufficiently flexible school structure in order to operate this program; and (e) to work toward operating procedures which are within the financial means of most innovative schools.**

Measurement and Decision Processes. **Individualization of instruction has put increased demands on the measurement of the progress of individual learners. The Center has concentrated on the following problems of measurement: (a) diagnostic achievement testing; (b) response patterns which indicate areas of strength and weakness for the student; and (c) measures of the rate at which a student masters subject-matter content. As a student works through a curriculum under development, the designer gets immediate feedback on the student's performance. This feedback is used by the designer to redesign the curriculum to meet the needs of the student.**

The nature of the school-college relationship in the LRDC is based upon common interests and a detailed exploration of action and consequences of action which can indicate how the association is to be carried on. The Center operates on the principle that innovative courses and materials can be generated at the university, but these need to be tested in the public school. One of the desirable elements of the cooperative relationship is the feedback of information from the school personnel to the university group. The directors feel that formative evaluation and modification in the experiments could not be done without reports from the school personnel.

PART III

Reactions to Cooperative Ventures: A Review of Critique Group Discussions at the Workshop-Symposium

CHANDLER BARBOUR
Instructor of Elementary Education
Wayne State University

"It looks like teacher education is really going somewhere." This was an observation made during a critique session by one youthful member. A veteran of AST conferences commented as she handed in her recorder's notes: "These seem a little negative today; we picked things apart . . . but I guess it's well we look for the pitfalls."

These comments give some evidence that the critique group participants interpreted their role as one of examining the issues presented during the conference symposia. Indeed, the groups were formed so that there would be opportunity for workshop participants to react and comment on the substance of the reports describing cooperative ventures in action.

The critique groups, made up of representatives of public schools, colleges, state departments of education, and professional organizations, demonstrated that, in the short time they operated, they were successful in locating a number of issues. Many of these are consistent with the items which have been noted in the summaries above; however, the group reports show that others need mention.

The participants reacted enthusiastically to the experimentation noted in the plans of cooperative ventures that were presented. In general, the workshop participants endorsed the general direction the new ventures seemed to be taking. However, it did not take long for the groups to take note of the things that worried them. It was apparent from the discussions that there are areas of concern and some lingering questions which still need to be considered.

Critique of State Plans and Regional Councils

Following the presentation of state plans (West Virginia, Georgia, and Pennsylvania), the critique group members expressed enthusiasm for the idea that a few state departments are proceeding to build a better teacher education program. General approval was expressed on the subject of the development of state minimum standards for teacher education programs and the certification of supervising teachers. The growing relationship among public schools, colleges, and state departments (which these plans call for) was endorsed heartily by the discussants. The feeling was that cooperation is essential in order to strengthen student teaching programs. The topic of more involvement and responsibility for student teaching programs by public schools came up frequently. The groups were fairly consistent in recommending that the public school should be moved nearer to the "student teaching front."

In considering the ideas presented in state plans, some groups wanted to know if the "minimal standards," which are features of statewide arrangements for student teaching, will lead to centralized patterns. Some warned of a danger if overly organized plans materialized. Others wished to know if the state guidelines will replace those of organizations such as NCATE and the regional accrediting associations. Is there a willingness to make a switch? Or should accreditation guides be extended to include criteria for cooperative teacher education?

The topic of research came up in some meetings, and many members felt that there is a great need to disseminate research on student teaching among practitioners. Is this a service that state departments and colleges have been overlooking? If so, perhaps state departments could assist in collecting research findings and making them available to school and college personnel.

Critique group members had mixed feelings on the evaluation of college programs by state department personnel. Some felt that this could up-grade weak programs in any one state and eliminate those that are just too small. Others felt that a state-wide evaluation system could lead college officials to put on a front to satisfy evaluators—that it might mean "back slapping and rolling out the red carpet." Still others expressed concern for the strong college program that might be hampered if subjected to such scrutiny every once in awhile. One provocative comment was that there is some danger of inbreeding when a state department evaluates with only its own personnel, using local evaluation devices. One person recommended that evaluation ideas originate with the colleges, but that state departments do the implementing.

The use of federal funds is a topic that invited discussion. When this came up in connection with the Pennsylvania program (funded under Title V of ESEA) there was strong interest generated. Some discussion centered around the advisability of procuring more federal aid. Other members felt that the program appeared to be research oriented, and if this were the case, then it would not be appealing to many practitioners. The frequently noted fear of federal control came up in the discussion, as did the concern for undesired standardization.

In all of this discussion, most participants agreed that there is obvious potential for financing expanded student teaching programs by working out some form of federal and state subsidy of the expensive aspects of supervision.

There was considerable agreement within the groups that the formation of a regional council by St. Cloud State College has made a favorable impact upon the student teaching program in that area. Discussants made special note of the ways of involving public school personnel in the decision making process. This was cited as a noteworthy move in promoting school-college relationships. It was suggested that the founders indicated a strong desire to have the Council continue—surviving the tenure of presently interested personnel. This is reflected in the plan's having been set up with a constitution and by-laws.

The critique group members did have questions on the role of the college supervisor in this situation. Some wanted to know if the heavy involvement of public school personnel signaled a significant change in the role of the college supervisor. Others wished to know how effective the college supervisor could be in trying to meet the requests of all the people involved. Participants in one group wanted to know how this program could be extended; they asked if this program could "provide for students of other colleges" (colleges within the region). One discussant wanted to know if the college always made the first move in establishing a cooperative venture. Perhaps this person is asking if college personnel are always responsive to the requests and initiatory efforts of the public schools.

Critique of Student Teaching Centers

In considering the proposals presented on Student Teaching Centers, the critique groups reacted with interest. Many groups welcomed the ideas of building cooperative arrangements through models such as these. There was feeling that they provided a framework for establishing ties that most professionals consider beneficial in student teaching situations. One participant observed that the Center concept was something "close to home," and therefore, she could take an immediate interest in it. Perhaps this bears out the fact that these arrangements might take form more easily than the other plans for cooperative partnerships.

Many of the group members had little previous experience with Centers and ventured some provocative questions on this type of school-college relationship. One group started its discussion with the question of whether or not the research showed that the Center idea could produce "a better product than what we have." Evidence, of course, has not yet been collected, because Cooperative Centers are still so young.

Several groups made note of the "flexibility" that seems to be a feature of student teaching Centers—all made approving statements on this. These same groups were interested in the fact that many of the Centers have been able to adapt to local needs and situations. Participants were impressed by the fact that the Center in operation could be highly organized and structured, but still provide for free exchange of ideas between school and college personnel. It was pointed out in one discussion that the "group planning sessions" which seem to be associated with many Centers are the "key" factors in assuring success.

Members in some of the critique groups wanted to know why there seemed to be little provision made for the inclusion of secondary schools in the Center programs. There was one report which noted that if these programs continue as they are, there will, perhaps, arise a dichotomy which will be injurious. Perhaps it is legitimate to ask: Is the elementary school more ready for change? Is the structure of the elementary school better suited for this type of project?

The "building approach" to student teaching (noted in the Wayne State University presentations) was received with some enthusiastic comment. Two groups felt that this approach represented a "wholesome way" to involve university personnel in the public schools. There were several favorable reactions to the idea of involving a whole staff in the student teaching experience, suggesting that such an approach would be exciting to try. One noted that, in addition to its appeal, the building approach made for more objectivity than traditional ways. Some discussants commented on the time investment that seemed to be necessary in this approach. Several participants felt that the time demands would hamper operations. They felt that both college personnel and school personnel would have difficulty in finding so much time in their already overburdened schedules.

The attempt to relate professional course work and student teaching through the "Elementary Integrated Program" at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee was discussed at length by the participants of several groups. The general feeling was that this feature provided a flexibility and opportunity for meaningful preparation which is missing in most conventional programs. There were some questions relating to the close work of the school and college personnel. One question was: "Will there be a practical problem of defining the roles of the public school personnel and the college personnel when they work together on this 'Integrated Program'?" Other people felt there was a possibility of conflict when two different staffs tried to share a load or make assignments or evaluations of the students. These questions center on the dynamics of the cooperative program, and one can only speculate on the amount of harmony that is needed for these to function properly. One interesting question on the Milwaukee program was that if it worked well in an urban situation, how much adaptation is needed for it to be applied to a suburban or rural situation?

Several groups mentioned the endorsement given to the Pennsylvania State University programs in which there had been an emphasis on "shifting some of the decision making" about student teaching programs to public school personnel. The feeling expressed by the reporters was that the added prestige given to supervising teachers represented a well advised advance. This "prestige" may be one of the keys behind the Pennsylvania State University idea of discontinuing the honoraria paid to supervising teachers.

Other favorable comments from the discussions about Centers were that (a) there appears to be a "public school effect upon the college curriculum and a college effect upon the public school curriculum"; (b) there is a contribution to the in-service education program of the schools because of the availability of the college personnel; (c) there are requests by public school people to the university to "bring (teach) certain courses to their schools"; and (d) there has been cooperative work in at least one of the Centers where public school and college faculties have worked together on integrating course content from the school view with that of the college.

Critique of Affiliated Schools and Research and Development Centers

In the lively discussion of the presentations about Affiliated Schools and Research and Development Centers, the conference participants apparently found much of interest and concern. There was general endorsement by a number of the groups that the establishment of the R & D Centers will be welcomed. In several reports, members pointed out that they were cognizant of that fact that these must become long term endeavors if experimentation is to be controlled. Most people involved in the discussions seemed enthusiastic over the promised results of these efforts. One participant noted that there was "an air of expectancy in viewing the exemplary projects" that are now placed in school settings. In sum, the conversation in most of the groups showed optimism about the opportunities to increase efficiency of learning in schools through cooperative school-college research programs.

These concerns were expressed: (a) Will there be a time lag in having the findings of the projects distributed? (b) Is it necessary to have a special person from "outside the school" conduct the research . . . is this the natural way? (c) Will the "learning specialist" (noted in the University of Wisconsin Project) role invade that now held by school principals?

There was considerable enthusiasm for the idea of bringing the academician out into the public schools so that he can appreciate how subject matter areas are involved in public school teaching. It was also noted that this is the person definitely needed, for he has easy access to the college facilities.

One group discussed the role of the small college in R&D Centers. Do these institutions have a place in projects such as this? Participants in one group speculated about the possibility of introducing the idea of "joint appointments" at this point. Is this the proper and logical place to stress joint appointments? This same group noted that the small college programs are "less fractionalized" and, therefore, more adaptable to working with public schools. There was a suggestion that the larger universities are the "ones that have splinter groups . . . some of which contain anti-teacher preparation attitudes."

In the discussion of the Oakleaf Project (Pittsburgh), group members were interested in knowing how far the program would extend in grade level. Several groups were interested in knowing what results the program had obtained thus far. The members of one group made it known that they felt the R & D Center was a valuable laboratory for high-level student teaching experiences.

In the discussion of the Rochester R & D Center, several reports brought out the feeling of the membership that this concept represented a new way of organizing education to respond quickly to the needs of schools. Two of the groups showed optimism in their reports when the "flexibility" of the project was noted. They felt that the bringing of university "know how" to the schools, without a lot of red tape, was highly desirable. The use of electronic equipment and other media were cited as high-powered features of this project.

In considering further the novel features of these projects, some spokesmen wanted to know how the project evaluations are being related to the progress of children. There seemed to be concern on the part of some that the efforts of these projects could become unrealistic. The following comment seems to sum up these fears: "We have heard a lot about new buildings, computers, and enlarged staffs, and very little mention of what has happened to boys and girls." Perhaps this means that these Centers need to produce, quickly, more information and statements on the real results of these projects.

The question of who will be in control came up a number of times. One group reported that there was concern among discussants about the loss of local autonomy. Another report noted that federal funding of the projects may have built-in restrictions that could ultimately bring problems.

Frequently in the group discussions some concomitant issues and ideas were discussed. It is not possible to report all of them; however, they are topics which need to be considered in the light of the new cooperative ventures. Some are reported below as continuing concerns of the conference participants.

1. Federal aid has indirectly started to come to some student teaching programs. Should we work toward more support to be made directly to student teaching programs? If so, how?
2. The lack of "commitment" on the part of student teachers is distressing to many supervisory personnel. How can we create programs to develop greater commitment? If school personnel

are more professionally involved in cooperative teacher education, will they feel more committed and pass this feeling on to students?

3. Some public schools have made use of industry and community resources in classroom instruction. Doesn't this represent a cooperative venture in another direction?
4. The placement of student teachers in racially different schools has been a continuing problem for student teacher programs. Ways of dealing effectively with this are not forthcoming. We need to build more successful experiences for students in racially different schools in order to overcome this problem. This could be an exciting cooperative venture.
5. There are problems which occur when several institutions are using the same school district for placement of student teachers. Can there be such an arrangement as an inter-college council?
6. It seems that there is always pressure for research on any project undertaken. Does this sometimes cloud the experimentation? If we do not use a great part of the research we now possess, then maybe we can do without this component for some of our work. Could cooperative programs begin to put present knowledge to work more quickly than heretofore?
7. There needs to be concern for the proper selection of supervising teachers. Can more effective selection of supervising teachers be done through cooperative arrangements?
8. There must be concern for prestige given to supervising teachers. Is money the answer? What other rewards are likely to interest the professional teacher as we move into collaborative programs?
9. Thought must be given to what teacher bargaining agents are going to demand in the way of remuneration for supervisory services and recommended teaching loads with released time. Will this bring out more strongly the demands for a more professional supervisory program?
10. Considerations should be given to the feasibility of "employment commitment practices." If this were done, perhaps schools and colleges could be drawn more closely together in planning for the students who are committed to a particular school system.
11. The profession needs to move toward preparing more people in educational research. Could this effort be speeded up by cooperative programs involving more teachers in research?

To arrive at a composite picture of what the conference critique groups developed is impossible, and to blend the concerns and endorsements would make the review less valuable. It must be remembered that the membership of the discussion groups was highly varied—representing different interests in the professional field. These interests or avenues, however, do lead to a common goal: the refinement of a better teacher education situation through cooperative partnerships.

The review of the suggestions and notes on the offerings presented during the Workshop-Symposia are certainly not "the answer"; they are not intended to be, for there is no one prescription that all involved could offer. It must be remembered that these are immediate reactions in group discussions. They are valuable, however, for they mirror the feelings and concerns of a much larger group of which this conference was representative.

Their statements represent endorsements, pleas, concerns, and feelings of interested people that should be considered when proceeding toward the goal of better teacher preparation through collaboration.

PART IV

Elaboration on Issues in Cooperative Venturing

PATRICK J. JOHNSON
Department of Education
Wayne State University

Five speeches were presented which elaborated on the issues identified in the preceding parts of Section II. Edward Ladd examined some basic tensions which are certain to arise when schools and colleges collaborate. He presented a penetrating analysis of the ways in which school systems and universities are alike and unlike. Ladd pointed out that universities have purposes sufficiently overlapping to permit extensive cooperative activities. But, he warned, if suspicions and resentments are to be mitigated, the differences between the purposes of universities and schools must be identified and considered. Ladd also coined the two terms which pertain to in-depth, cooperative, inter-institutional endeavors. These terms are "direct cost of cooperation" and "dependency cost of cooperation."

Laszlo Hetenyi presented a very frank analysis of the complex political interplay of personal and organizational goals and forces which constitute the inter-institutional process called student teaching. He identified the features of the several groups involved and discussed the relative power of each and how it may be used to advantage whenever a conflict of interest arises.

George Owen discussed the politics of partnership in teacher education from the point of view of a school administrator in a central office position whose main concern is continuing teacher education.

Roy Edelfelt discussed the role of the professional organization in the teacher education process. He argued for a broader definition of teacher education which would include a rationale for the inclusion of the professional organization as a full partner with schools, colleges, and other agencies.

Harriet Feinberg analyzed the perceptions of key personnel associated with the Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Feinberg solicited these perceptions after the Center had been in operation for a year. They are focussed on this question: How can the Center make a difference in classrooms?

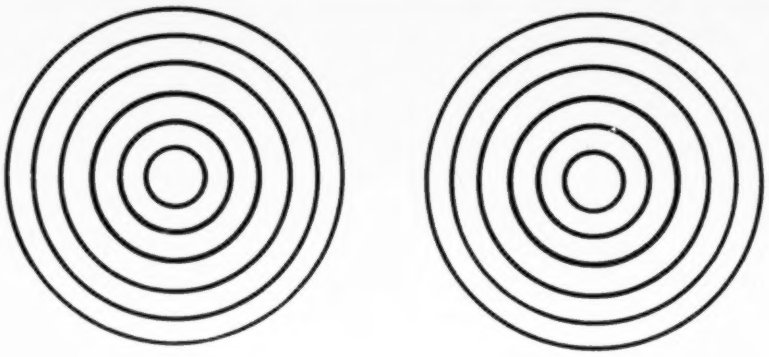
Horton Southworth discussed the problems encountered by a large university located in a small city in establishing off-campus student teaching Centers in urban areas.

Patrick Johnson presented a summary of his research concerning the assessment of the administrative organization of cooperative teaching Centers at Wayne State University.

A. Tensions in School-University Collaboration

EDWARD T. LADD
Director, Division of Teacher Education
Emory University

Some years ago Kurt Lewin, in discussing relations between individuals, used the figure of sets of concentric circles:[8]



He used the outer rings to represent aspects of the individual: attitudes, habits, and the like that were not central to his personality and that could be modified with relative ease and at little psychic cost to him. The inner circles and the core were, of course, the attitudes and habits which more nearly constitute the self—to be preserved and defended, if need be, at any cost.

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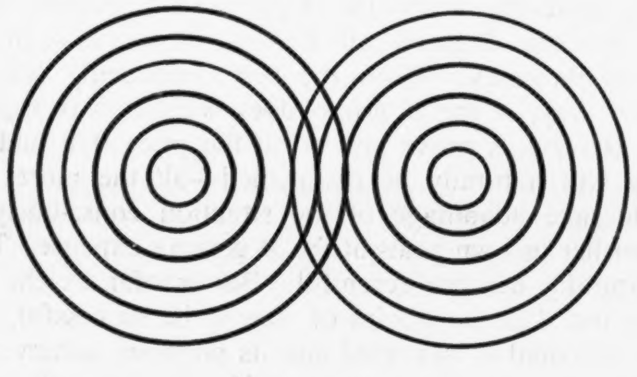
[8] Lewin, Kurt. *Resolving Social Conflicts:* Selected Papers on Group Dynamics. (Edited by Gertrude Weiss Lewin.) New York: Harper & Brothers, 1948. 230 pp.

When individuals are in relation to one another, the patterns overlap, though not necessarily, as Lewin's circles might suggest, symmetrically:



A joint activity might influence, or require change in, matters ranging from the quite marginal, e.g., where a person is to spend an afternoon, to the very deep and personal, such as his strongly-held convictions.

Life-Space of Institutions, Schools, and Universities:

The life space of institutions, too, comes in layers. When two institutions collaborate, the one affects concerns of the other which may be only marginal ones or may be ones which affect its most vital interests. A case of the former would be one organization's getting the other involved in drafting joint recommendations on some subject on which they were agreed; a case of the latter would be one's having veto power over a key personnel appointment in the other.

Most of the school system-university collaboration, in which we have been engaging up to now, invades only the outer rings of the respective institutions. I should like to suggest, though, that the kind we are going to be working on in the next years will get us involved in each other's inner rings. We shall be getting more and more involved with each other's policy-making, each other's personnel selection, each other's basic style of operation, and the like. And these involvements will carry with them much greater threats and may arouse much greater tensions and even antagonisms.

Probabilities of Tension in Inter-organizational Collaboration:

We may, for convenience, look upon collaborative ventures between two organizations as ventures in which the people in organization *A* and people in organization *B* work together so that each group can achieve the things it wants, which by itself it could achieve either less satisfactorily or not at all. Let us look at the collaboration from the point of view of the *A* group, bearing in mind that in any situation either organization can be regarded as organization *A*.

For the *A* group the collaborative venture means help from the *B* group for the achieving of its (the *A* group's) objectives. It means, in a real sense, that the *B* group will become its servants, or at least the servants of its purposes. When the new, intendedly cooperative activity is under way, if the *B* group does what it was expected to do poorly, and its services prove not worth the price that had to be paid, the *A* group will naturally be dissatisfied—all the more so if the *B* group should take advantage of the situation consciously or unconsciously to further its own goals at the *A* group's expense. The *A* group will then naturally become resentful. But insofar as the cooperation appears from the *A* group's point of view to be successful, the *A* group feels that its potential is increased and its purposes achieved—or better achieved. The servant seems to be doing his job well. And insofar as the *A* group is pleased with the result, other things being equal, it will tend to be pleased with the one responsible, namely, the *B* group, and will develop favorable attitudes toward it which will make collaboration even easier.

However, over and above any *quid pro quo* it has to contribute as its part of the bargain, the *A* group pays an indirect price for the help it gets from the *B* group. For whenever we expect cooperation, we tend to count on it and become dependent on it—and thus put ourselves somewhat at the mercy of the person with whom we are cooperating. Thus, for the *A* group, one probable part of the cost of collaborating is that it puts itself in some degree at the mercy of the *B* group. (This fact is not altered, of course, by the fact that the process is functioning in reverse for the *B* group, which is coming to be at the mercy of the *A* group.) To distinguish this part of the cost of collaboration from the direct, agreed-upon price, we can call the latter the "direct cost" and the former the "dependency cost."

Dependency Costs of Collaboration:

That dependency costs are hidden does not mean that they are less important than direct costs: in producing tensions their role is surely greater. To be at someone else's mercy breeds feelings of insecurity and suspicion, defensive behavior, and often expressions of hostility. And these reactions are the more probable to the extent that (a) the other group pursues purposes which diverge from one's own; and (b) their habits, customs, attitudes, or language make you inclined to misunderstand or misinterpret what they say, or make it hard for you to predict what they will do. It seems unlikely that even mutual good will or personal liking, by itself, will entirely forestall insecurity or hostility. Only if one understands one's servant well enough to know exactly how far his loyalty extends and correctly interprets his every action and expression can one lean on him with complete confidence. To bring it back to home, however useful and essential collaboration between universities and schools is, and however much good will there is on both sides, collaboration will tend to entail dependency costs for each group involved and serious emotional tensions and problems between them.

Ways to Alleviate Tensions Between Collaborators:

The only way in which these difficulties could be eliminated or mitigated, if the two types of institution are to collaborate in depth, would be for them to:

1. Direct their efforts to the achievement of exactly the same purposes as one another; and
2. Understand completely one another's cultures or subcultures, language, habits, and so on.

If these suggestions sound silly, let me invite your attention to the fact that it is largely by observing them that, up to now, school systems and universities have cooperated fairly peacefully.

When significant collaboration has taken place, it has most often been between school systems and those segments of the universities which most nearly share the goals and purposes of the school systems, namely, the education faculties especially interested in school teaching and administration. (Let me remind you of the difficulty we have all experienced in trying to relate the subject matter faculties of the universities, or even the education psychologists and philosophers, to their public school brethren and vice versa.)

For the same reason, when significant collaboration has taken place, it has usually involved only those on the two sides who were so similar in their habits, customs, attitudes, and language as to understand one another readily. Science education specialists or science professors much interested in science teaching—as distinct from research—have worked smoothly with public school science education personnel. And most strikingly, professors of education, a group inclined to be rather like public school people in their habits and attitudes, have worked fairly smoothly with public school people. In connection with this example, may I refer you to James Conant's book on teacher education with its numerous suggestions that professors of education are more like public school people than like their colleagues in other departments on their own campuses and identify themselves more closely with the public education establishment than with the university establishment.[9]

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[9] Conant, James B., *The Education of American Teachers.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963. 275 pp.

Goal Overlap and Goal Distance in School-University Collaboration:

Let us now turn our attention to the respective goals of school systems and universities, asking whether they are essentially the same, or at least overlap one another. Let us then consider certain salient differences between their two subcultures as they exist today.

There are tensions that derive from inherent differences between school systems and universities. This is not intended to suggest a Platonist view of either type of institution. Rather, it rests upon the assumption that many of the observable characteristics of each stem from the ultimate distinct purposes our social system expects each institution to serve, while others are more nearly accidents of time and place and hence more readily altered.

To the man in the street it might seem obvious that school systems and universities have a common purpose—the education of the young. This view is valid only in part. If we think of their common purpose as the bringing together of learning and learners, we can spot a decisive difference. Public school systems are expected to start with learners or potential learners: their aim is to bring these young people to learning. Universities are expected to start with learning: their aim, or part of it, is to share this learning with learners. By statute, the public schools accept and keep essentially all comers, regardless of ability and motivation. They can introduce into the picture not much more learning than the learners will bear. Universities, on the other hand, traditionally think of themselves as centers of learning, to which learners are admitted on the university's terms. Even where legislatures have tried to impose unselected student bodies upon state universities, the latter have generally developed means of subverting their intent and preserving their right to select their students.

Another example: in regard to in-service programs, we hear public school people saying, "We have a lot of teachers who need to learn such-and-such—the university should offer it for academic credit." But we hear the university people reply, "We don't think that what you're talking about is sufficiently learned for us to offer it for credit." The university people may appear to the public school people as being uncooperative intellectual snobs, while the public school people may appear to the university people as having no standards and endeavoring to subvert theirs.

An important way in which universities show their commitment to learning for its own sake—apart from learners—is their conduct of pure or basic research. The educated public expects the universities to be the country's major centers of basic research, and university faculties could not imagine a university in which pure research was not paid at least lip service. In this respect there is a clear-cut difference of purpose between the two types of institution as we generally know them.

These two forms of difference in purpose seem to explain a good deal of the tension between universities and school systems.

Examples of Goal Differences in Studies of Research and Development Centers:

In the new Research and Development Centers the divergence of goals causes considerable difficulties. Harriet Feinberg[10] of Harvard and Alfred Smith[11] of Oregon have both reported various kinds of discordance generated by the university people's concern for basic research. William W. Wayson of Syracuse writes that the "university ('s) duty to search for truth and change . . . is anathema to the personnel in the city school system." But, he insists, "Universities must not compromise their obligation to search for greater and truer knowledge, and schools should not expect them to do so in working out a desirable interorganizational relationship."[12] Does the latter prescription reflect a university man's fear that school systems may make the university give up one of its chief purposes as the price of their cooperation?

The university's concern with pure research and especially with the building of theory—the ultimate in academic learning—tends to make public school people afraid that, in any collaborative relationship, the university people may merely "do research on" them or their pupils. The school people might tolerate this if they thought it held forth promise of helping to solve school problems, but they often fear that the project may damage pupils or school routines, and they know that it is less likely to address itself to school problems than to the refining of abstruse theories. They tend to see university research people as likely to get in the way, as interested only in exploiting the schools, and as probably quite capable of publishing any and all findings, eventually to hold them up for potentially damaging public scrutiny, even those which might damage their relations with the public. Because university people are outside public education, they understand it better. And in the sense that their understanding of what goes on in schools is more systematic, scientific, historical, or sociological, hence, often more useful for predicting or plotting strategy for change, *they* are right—so they tend to get irritated with school people's self-assured lack of readiness to recognize what they clearly see to be the case.

There are other differences which could be mentioned. Nonetheless, in their different ways and with different emphases, both types of institutions are committed to the promotion of learning, and it seems safe to say that they have purposes sufficiently overlapping to permit much collaborative enterprise. The important thing, if suspicions and resentments are to be minimized, is that the differences between their purposes be recognized and taken into account.

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[10] Feinberg, Harriet. *Perspective on the R & D Center.* A Report to the Policy Board of the Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences, Harvard Graduate School of Education. 1966. 18 pp. (Mimeo.)

[11] Smith, Alfred G. *Communication and Status: The Dynamics of a Research Center.* Eugene: University of Oregon, 1966.

[12] Wayson, W. W. "The University's Relation to the Urban School District." Unpublished paper, 1966.

Differences in Subcultures Between School Systems and University Systems:

Let us now look hastily at some differences between school systems and universities which seem not to derive from their essential nature, but to be aspects of two subcultures which have grown up historically. These are probably the most exasperating tensions between school and university people trying to work collaboratively; but at the same time, those most capable of being remedied are those divergent customs and attitudes which have grown up within the respective types of institutions. A complete list of them would be extremely long. The following listing is tentative and brief. The generalizations about universities in particular may be open to the charge that they are unwarranted because universities are so different from one another. In most cases in which the variability has seemed especially great an effort has been made to characterize the more established universities, partly on the assumption that the newer institutions tend to look to them as models. I invite your reactions, corrections, and additions.

University System	School System
With regard to policy-making:	
In universities the faculty is accustomed to making policy decisions. This means extensive discussion of policy questions, a lot of prior checking with many people on actions of many types, and often collective drafting of documents. University faculty members get nervous when they see administrators making decisions rapidly.	In school systems administrators commonly make most major decisions, with varying amounts of consultation. This means rapid decision making. School people tend to be nervous when decisions have to await the outcome of extensive deliberation or checking with various categories of persons.
University people work naturally and easily with the written word: commonly, they start a conversation by presenting a written summary of an idea. They draft, tear apart, and redraft plans, proposals, and policy statements with pleasure. Many of them can hardly think about a problem without writing or reading what someone else has written about it. When an analysis or agreement has been put in writing, university people tend to treat it with great seriousness.	Public school people typically communicate with one another mostly by the spoken word. Often they feel no need to put an important idea in writing. If they do write, it tends to be at a late stage and to indicate near-finality. They tend to get nervous when university people present them with a draft or statement early in a joint undertaking, and they are less accustomed to radical criticism of their own written products. Written materials dealing with complex issues, even

University System	***School System***
University plans tend to be designed to provide considerable flexibility and latitude; universities choose general directions, seek funds which will give them freedom, and reject funds with too many strings attached. Thus, university people tend to be confident that they will remain in control of a project and are not inclined to a fear of being pushed around.	materials they have helped to draft, often appear of little use to them and may receive from them only perfunctory attention. Public schools are inclined to accept all moneys that become available and are thus more inclined to be pushed around by those with the power of the purse. Hence, public school people are more fearful of outside control and more jealous of their independence.
With regard to staffing:	
Universities make relatively few appointments and tend to pursue individuals who have been recommended. Routinely, they screen many names thoroughly and at length. Many, before making an offer, will interview, for a day or two each, from three to six candidates. Throughout the procedure they are trying to sell candidates on the position, as well as judging the candidates. They tend to regard any less thorough procedure as casual and ineffective.	School systems make many appointments. They commonly solicit and respond to applications and concentrate on judging between the individuals who want the position. They tend to take formal qualifications (e.g., degrees or certification) as *prima facie* evidence of competence. They tend to move rapidly. They are inclined to be impatient with any procedure which appears fussy, burdensome, or expensive.
Universities pay relatively low salaries for topflight scholars and administrators. University people expect to work on their own schedule, however, and take vacations whenever it seems practicable and desirable.	Public school systems pay higher salaries; they expect key personnel to be on duty during the regular working time except for explicit limited vacation times.
With regard to research and development:	
Universities tend to collect numbers of people whose preference for theoretical matters is so great that they are uninterested in down-to-earth realities. Such people tend to start building new theory by examining the implica-	Public school staffs are largely composed of persons who are primarily concerned with the solving of immediate practical problems. They are inclined to doubt the value of any help they might receive from a theoretician.

University System	School System
tions of existing theory rather than real phenomena.[13] They tend to be reluctant to try to provide help with the solving of down-to-earth problems.	
With regard to status:	
In universities internal status tends to be nonlinear and is often difficult for outsiders to gauge; it does not necessarily relate directly to rank, salary, nature of responsibility, or whether there is a name on the door or a rug on the floor. Status differences impede communication and affect decision making somewhat less than in most organizations.	In school systems status differences are, in general, clear and well-advertised. They have a considerable limiting effect on communication and are highly determining of the locus of decision making.
In society at large university personnel, in general, are assigned comfortably high socioeconomic status. Many of them are unaware of the constraining effect status differences have on their relationships with public school people. Some tend to fear building close relationships with public school people.	In society at large public school people are in general assigned middle-class status. Many of them feel somewhat insecure and even defensive in dealings with college professors, deans, and presidents.

If schools and universities are now to collaborate more intensively and more effectively than heretofore in teacher education, then each side needs to be well aware of subcultural differences. Leadership will emerge in both groups from those who recognize and accept the subcultural differences and learn how to work with them rather than against them.

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[13] Feinberg, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

B. The Politics of School-College Cooperation in Student Teaching

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It has been said that "politics is the cultivation of the art of the feasible." If this be so, then this cooperative venture we call student teaching is a political problem *par excellence*. In any worthwhile student teaching arrangement there is an interplay of forces—both individual and institutional—of considerable complexity, as each contributor seeks for himself something out of the relationship. Hopefully, these gains are not at the expense of another partner, though they sometimes are, but rather they spring from situations in which the gain for one is no loss for another. Human conditions being what they are, this optimum situation is rarely realized. What we are faced with in student teaching is an interplay of forces: each participating organization and individual has objectives in common with all others as well as objectives of his own which he seeks to promote, even at the expense of the total enterprise, or of other participants. Likewise, each contributing member has certain power components which he can, and does, employ to his own advantage whenever a conflict of interest arises.

The crucial question is posed by the basic objective of the cooperative relationship: How does one provide optimum field experience for the fledgling teacher? To put it another way—theoretically the only purpose of cooperation in student teaching is the development of situations in which college students gain the maximum benefit for their professional goal: readiness for competent entry into the teaching profession. In reality, however, optimizing the conditions leading to this goal is not enough. Energetic participation of all contributors will occur only if each segment of the group feels that its special objectives are advanced by the joint enterprise. The relationship involves a dynamic balance of centrifugal and centripetal forces—the centrifugal forces representing the varied divisive goals of participating groups, with the centripetal force contributed by the single common objective of an effective student teaching program. The political problem consists in so satisfying the special interests that the joint enterprise becomes not merely a goal in its own right, but also a highly valued instrumentality in achieving the special objectives of all participants. Failure to advance the common goal ruins student teaching; failure to satisfy the special goals loses the enthusiastic support of one or more contributing partners.

Generation of Special Interests and Forces by Each Institution and Its Personnel:

As in any delicate political situation, so here, individuals and institutions generate both interests and forces. Clearly, supervising teachers and student teachers are the primary groups with which we deal. Second only to these two is the pairing of building administrators and directors of student teaching. On the institutional side, the primary participants are the school districts and the teacher training institutions. Today the state, through such agencies as the state department of education; various coordinating committees, etc.; and the federal government, via the various support programs, also enters the picture. Ultimately, the single unifying interest is that of the public, but alas, this too often has a way of standing as an amorphous entity behind the entire enterprise—with the greatest stake in, and the least direct power to influence the situation.

Minimal Power Base of the Student Teacher:

As we view these various groups one by one, certain striking features emerge. Student teachers, possibly the most personally affected group, have little direct power to affect conditions.

A student teacher's development is critically determined by the quality of the student teaching experience, by the skills and attitudes of the supervising teacher, by the atmosphere of the school, and by the competence of the college supervisory staff. At the same time, the student teacher has very little power to safeguard his interests. In extreme cases he may choose to leave the college to escape an unfortunate student teaching situation, but very few would be prepared to take this drastic a step. When they do muster their courage, and abandon student teaching at one institution, too often this leads to their being rejected by another. Thus, the refusal to tolerate intolerable conditions yields no program improvements, but bans the protesting student from the teaching profession. The students' weapon, therefore, is no weapon at all, since it penalizes them rather than those responsible for poor conditions. To be sure, should a large number of students in a single institution rebel against a particular school district, there might be some remedial action, but only if the college mobilized its forces on the side of the student. *In student teaching, therefore, the most vitally affected party has the least effective power to change the situation.*

Power Base of Supervising Teachers:

The second major group—the supervising teachers—are in a much more fortunate position. They have a large stake in developing and improving the candidates for the teaching profession. The quality of new colleagues, the status of the profession, and the composition of the faculty in their district, as its composition is affected by student teaching, are all long range concerns of theirs. Excellence in student teaching is also of immediate interest to a supervising teacher. His class operates better if the student teacher is given adequate help; his own role is eased in later stages if at first he is willing to invest the time and trouble to assist his student teacher. Personal, emotional rewards also spring from a good period of student teaching. Finally, the reputation gained when a supervising teacher is highly regarded by student teachers and it gets back to his administrative superiors, it can be of material assistance to his career. In all of these respects the supervising teacher's special interests are served at the same time that the student teaching program is strengthened.

Unfortunately, not all motives of potential supervising teachers are in this positive direction. Some seek student teachers to shed onerous duties in the classroom. A student teacher may find himself grading an inordinate number of papers; doing menial tasks; or being relegated to unpopular collateral assignments such as hall monitoring, lunchroom duty, and the like. Not infrequently a teacher volunteers to become a supervising teacher simply to gain a partial vacation during the time that the student teacher is in the room. In other instances, a teacher has special concerns about some phase of instruction or some segment of his class. He may wish to concentrate on reading instruction or assist a particular group (the retarded, the discipline problems, the gifted), and so he welcomes a chance to be freed for the tasks to which he is specially committed. In these instances the objectives of the supervising teacher are different from, even antithetical to, the interests of a good student teaching program.

Powers of the Supervising Teacher:

Along with goals, the supervising teacher brings with him certain power components into student teaching. Clearly, the greatest power at a teacher's command rests in his freedom to accept or refuse student teachers. Only rarely do district administrators dare to coerce teachers overtly into participating in student teaching. More frequently, the powers-that-be apply disguised pressure, but even then teachers retain considerable latitude in accepting such assignments. Thus, making himself available or withholding his services is probably the single greatest power at the command of the supervising teacher.

Second only to this is his control over the conditions under which the student teacher operates. There are infinite ways in which a teacher can make the situation pleasant or unpleasant for the student teacher, and experienced practitioners have mastered all the tricks of the game. What makes the exercise of this power devastatingly effective is the general insecurity of the inexperienced young persons and the specific uncertainty they feel about their competence in the classroom. What, and how much, help the cooperating teacher provides, the way in which he structures the student teacher's relationship with pupils, how he organizes conference sessions, etc., can have decisive impact on the student teacher's success. Now and again a particularly strong student teacher can counteract the patterns established by the supervising teacher, but most of the time his power position is well-nigh unassailable. Let me hasten to say that most teachers use these powers positively; nevertheless, the power is in their hands and it can be, and has been, used for ill as well as for good.

Let me return briefly to the teacher's first, and greatest, power component: his choice to participate or not to participate in student teaching. Capable teachers who are willing to accept student teachers are at a premium, as colleges and universities enroll more and more preprofessional students. With improvements in transportation, and with student teaching centers becoming ever more popular, the day is gone when a teacher education institution can regard teachers in neighboring districts as captives in a private domain.

Today it is true, as it might not have been true in other years, that a teacher's willingness to accept student teachers is of major concern to universities and to the school districts as well. We have all seen instances when teachers in a given district rejected the policies of a college and, in effect, barred the institution from sending students into the district. Similarly, the teacher's power of rejection is a potent weapon against his own school system. Though the administration may wish to accept student teachers, the school faculties can, through their reluctance to serve, curtail or even make impossible a student teaching program. The district authorities have but limited means to counteract a determined exercise of this power by the teaching staff.

Power Base of School Administrators:

A rather interesting example of conflicting goals can be seen in the case of building administrators. They certainly have an interest in the success of student teaching; after all, it is from products of such programs that they must recruit their new staffs. It is well known that students who had a pleasant and profitable student teaching contact in a building often make every effort to return to that building when they enter the profession. This is a great help to principals in their annual recruiting.

On the other hand, the principal is primarily committed to his pupils. He may find, for example, that to gain the material support he seeks from the central administration, he must somehow raise the prestige of his building. He may, therefore, simply use the student teaching program as a means to acquire status for his school. Some principals have been known to designate members of their staff as prospective supervising teachers—when these individuals are but marginally qualified—in the hope that such participation will raise their standing in the building and the district. I have encountered just this sort of manipulation and can assure those who have not that the results might have been beneficial for the building administrator, but were catastrophic for the student teaching program.

Another benefit which accrues to a building through good student teaching programs is the professional growth of the teaching staff. If the college supervisors are capable, if the student teachers are of high quality, then the months of student teaching can represent a form of in-service education for the supervising teachers and even for the faculty of the whole school. It is easy to see how the college supervisors might function in this role; it is perhaps less obvious that the student teachers also have contributions to make.

Very often an effective teacher adopts teaching patterns, modes of organizing material, and ways of structuring class interaction which gradually become habitual and are no longer subject to examination. If the teacher is good, these habits are initially effective, but they can deteriorate or remain unchanged when new or different procedures could yield still greater success. While working with a student teacher, the supervising teacher must bring to a conscious level and communicate explicitly many of the activities thus habituated. In this process the teacher finds a ready-made opportunity to once again examine his behavior in the light of advances in research and practice. To the extent that his teachers undergo this reawakening, a principal reaps significant benefits for his school.

Powers of the Building Principal:

Too often we forget just how powerful a figure the building principal is in student teaching programs. He is the first screening officer for supervising teachers. Should he decide that his special interests are not well served by a given program, he makes no secret of his negative reactions. The teachers are quick to get the message, and applications for assignments are few and far between. But even if the principal does not choose to wield his power so brazenly, he can make the situation so tense for student teachers (by setting up onerous regulations, by making access to records difficult, by limiting their participation in interesting duties) that his building becomes a veritable Siberia in the student teaching program.

In contrast, these wide powers of the building administrator can also operate positively. Adequate preparation in faculty meetings does wonders to draw forth qualified volunteer teachers who might otherwise shrink into the background. Careful orientation to a reasonable range of duties and easy access to records and auxiliary services can make the lot of the student teacher both pleasant and profitable. The principal, through his contacts in the district and his personal connections in other buildings, can provide for student teachers a wider range of experiences than would be possible were they confined to a single classroom.

Whether or not, and in which direction, the principal chooses to exercise this power has a vital bearing on the success of student teaching. Since district meetings of administrators tend to be numerically dominated by building principals, the opinions they hold concerning various student teaching programs, specific colleges and universities, or even individuals on university supervising staffs have significant bearing on which student teaching programs a district accepts and how much latitude in operating the program student teachers and college supervisors can expect. This power has been so openly exercised in so many districts that colleges have had to learn to tailor their procedures to, or at least avoid significant violations of, the preferences of building administrators.

Power Base of School Districts:

Time and space make it impossible to examine each contributing group's interests and powers in detail, but there is one more pairing of such significance that any discussion which failed to take cognizance of it would be seriously incomplete. I speak of the school districts (as represented by their top administration) and the institutions of higher learning (as represented by the administrators of teacher education programs).

There are two factors which make school-university relations matters of special concern to school districts today. One is the acute teacher shortage; the other, the abundance of federal and state assistance programs which involve joint applications by schools and universities. Even at best, district superintendents and their personnel officers range far and wide to fill openings on their staffs; thus, they can ill afford to antagonize neighboring teacher training institutions. Time and again school districts approach universities and colleges to offer their classrooms for student teaching when the primary motivation is not genuine interest in a student teaching program, but a desire for easy access to the crop of teachers produced annually by the college. In these cases the motivating goals of the district and of a successful student teaching program are far apart.

Much the same can be said about those districts which seek affiliation with a college or university primarily to mobilize federal or state funds. There have been cases when school districts offered hard-pressed universities placements for student teachers simply to establish a reservoir of good will for future grant-producing undertakings. Here, too, the motives are questionable and may militate against a successful student teaching program.

Almost the same circumstances, in reverse, show the power of the school districts to improve student teaching procedures. As the school or division of education in a university frantically seeks assignments for its student teachers, it often expands beyond its geographic, physical, and personnel limits and thereby reduces the quality of student teaching. The districts can insist that universities find adequate resources or face refusal of placements in the schools.

A classical case in point (classical because it happens with such regularity) is the university which tries to operate student teaching programs without adequate supervision by competent personnel. District administrators voice their complaints at meeting after meeting that university *A* or college *B* assigns student teachers without school officials ever meeting a supervisor until it is time to collect evaluation forms at the end of the contact. These same administrators point with scorn to all programs which offer inadequate preparation for the supervising teacher—little or no compensation for his efforts, minimal assistance to student teachers, and a whole host of similar ills. With universities competing for every desirable student teacher placement, school districts have at their disposal power of great magnitude to force corrective action. Never has the district's weapon of institutional exclusion been more potent!

Power Base of Universities and Colleges:

The colleges and universities which develop teachers have as their primary goal (in this context) the operation of first-rate student teaching programs: i.e., their central commitment and that of the whole enterprise coincide. Unfortunately this is only part of the story.

As was implied earlier, institutions of higher learning also have less constructive objectives. For example, every college tries to make its well populated programs carry part of the financial burden imposed by low enrollment areas. Teacher preparation is almost always one of the most heavily laden beasts of burden. Likewise, undergraduate instruction—including student teaching—has for many years been a means through which universities subsidized advanced graduate programs and research. In addition, admissions and placement offices have often exerted considerable pressure in the selection of school districts for student teacher assignments. Too often recruitment, occasionally job placement of graduates, and at times even political considerations, rather than optimal prospects for student teaching, determine with which districts the university enters contracts for cooperation.

I have indicated previously how districts can exercise their power *vis à vis* the universities—be it to strengthen student teaching, or be it for peripheral purposes—*but in the joint undertaking the universities are by no means powerless partners either;* their power flows through at least four major channels.

First is the control of teacher supply. In a generally tight market, school districts today must rely heavily on the endorsement and good will of teacher training institutions for faculty recruitment. When a university persistently refuses to enter student teaching agreements with a district, when the professional school (or department) fails to recommend a school system to good graduates, when the educational specialist in the placement office year after year omits a district from interview listings, the district soon discovers that high quality teachers from that institution are hard to attract. Should the relationship become really bad, so that the university passes on its stand to other colleges (through ASCUS, for example), the personnel director of the school system will find his recruiting task just about impossible. Thus, the control of new entrants into the teaching profession represents a tremendous power component in the hands of the institutions of higher learning.

A second, analogous, element of strength stems from the university's continuing contacts with teaching staffs. With the growing academic requirements for permanent certification, with the increasing emphasis on advanced degrees, with proliferation of specialized training programs and institutes, colleges and universities work almost constantly with some segment of the faculty in any given school system. To assume that these contacts are not exploited to the fullest when a university finds itself in a power conflict with district administrators would be naïveté of the first magnitude.

A third significant element strengthening the position of the university is the presence of specialists on its staff. Not only do most districts (excepting only the largest and richest) need the expertise available on the campus, but in many cases special federal and state funds will depend on a district's gaining access to university resources. As a matter of fact, there are fields in which the supply of qualified staff is so short that for many districts affiliation with a university is the only way to obtain the services of specialists.

Finally, there is now, as there has always been, a certain status value in cooperative arrangements with respected institutions of higher learning—just as joint ventures with outstanding school districts add prestige to colleges and professional schools. Gains in status not only assist the grant-gaining or staff-holding power of a district, but also have perceptible impact on the community. One hardly need belabor the importance of this point at a time of close millage elections and active lay concern for the curricula and procedures in the public schools!

Power Components Act in Concert, Harmoniously or Discordantly:

This brief, and admittedly incomplete, analysis of the forces which interact in the student teaching program would be badly misleading were I to leave the impression that the power components either could or do operate as discrete entities. The balance of forces is actually a highly unstable, dynamic structural entity. Unfortunately, too often the components neutralize each other, move in tangential directions, or produce conditions not in the interest of good student teaching programs. Skillful manipulation of the power components is the only means by which the character of this dynamic equilibrium can be affected. To manipulate the forces so that optimum conditions result is the supreme test of the politics of school-college cooperation in student teaching.

C. The View From the Other Side: The Role of the Public Schools in Student Teaching [14]

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The Continuing Education Department of the Detroit Public Schools is responsible for the school system's program of teacher education. While this responsibility includes the usual functions of induction and orientation of beginning teachers, in-service education for experienced teachers, and staff development for those who have left the classroom to become administrators and supervisors, it also includes the school system's work in the preservice education of teachers. A part of this work is the student teaching program in Detroit. The Detroit Public Schools are a tremendous laboratory for the field experiences of those preparing to be teachers, and so it is not surprising that ten to fifteen of the universities in southeastern Michigan, northern Ohio, and Indiana send student teachers to Detroit in the number of 2,200 to 2,400 annually.

The Role of the Public Schools in Student Teaching:

The total profession of education has many facets. Its roles are as diverse as the kindergarten teacher and the college professor, the school administrator and the coach, members of state departments of education and college professors, members of the staff of educational organizations and guidance counselors. We all agree that each of these subdivisions has an important role to play in the total profession, but most of us play our roles as though we were the only actor on the stage. This ignoring of others in the total profession is often suitable. Teachers, for example, probably do not need to worry about where the funds to support education come from, and professors of educational administration do not need to be able to teach reading. Even the education of teachers does not directly concern many teachers; for them "teacher education" is something they went through in their youth, and is now limited to occasional off-campus courses and the reading of professional journals. Only in student teaching do a number of branches of the profession come into direct contact with each other. Only in this arena do we have to work together. And this contact is often bruising. Its success requires cooperation, and cooperation, like motherhood, is easier to talk about than to experience.

Successful cooperation between school systems and universities, and between classroom teachers and college supervisors, is based on at least three factors. Strangely, these factors seem very similar to those necessary to make a marriage work: (a) mutual respect, (b) common purpose, and (c) an intent to make it work.

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[14] A talk to the M-STEP Clinic on Student Teaching in Lansing, Michigan, on Friday, June 2, 1967.

We all know those school people who think that college professors are up on cloud nine, in an ivory tower, divorced from reality. This attitude is epitomized in the phrase that is often heard in teachers' lounges: "If he's so smart, let him come out here and try to teach those kids in my class!" But we also know the attitude common on many campuses which holds that teachers are traditionalists; that it takes them seven years, or seventeen years, or twenty-seven years to introduce innovations; that they teach as they've always been taught; and so forth. College staff members who feel this way usually believe that all would be well if that teacher would just teach as they tell him to, instead of teaching in the way he presently does.

In the face of these divergent opinions, how can mutual respect be gained? I know of only one way: by endless contacts between college and school personnel and a continuing struggle to work together. Over the past four years I have sat through endless "confidential conferences" with directors of student teaching at various universities, school principals, sponsoring teachers, and student teachers. Out of these conferences have come difficult decisions, modifications of policies of all of our institutions, sometimes heartbreak—but slowly, surely, mutual respect. I feel that I know college problems and I believe college people know mine. One thing we have all learned: each of us has to discipline his own organization on those occasions, about equally distributed on both sides, when he has been wrong and the other fellow right. Maybe the admission on each of our parts that in some instance one of us has been wrong, *and the willingness to act on this admission,* is the final demonstration of mutual respect.

The achievement of a common purpose in student teaching is, if anything, more difficult to achieve than mutual respect. Its achievement must start with the recognition of differences in obvious goals. The college's goal in student teaching is the training of a tuition-paying student in an aspect of education required for certification when that student is graduated. The school system's primary goal is to educate children, not to train teachers. It requires some exercise in logic to recognize that the continued education of children requires a supply of trained teachers each year, and this recognition is always for a time in the future. Why, then, should school systems become involved in student teaching at all? I think there are three reasons:

1. To keep the teachers and other members of the school system's staff in contact with new ideas in education
2. To fulfill an obligation to the profession which each of us incurred when some earlier teacher guided us through student teaching

3. To increase the base from which the school system recruits new teachers.

In these three reasons must be found the common purpose for universities and school systems to join in student teaching programs. The first and the last ones imply, for colleges, that supervisors of student teachers have not done their whole job if they stop with the supervision process. They need also to funnel new ideas in education to teachers and school administrators who often have little time to keep abreast of the latest developments in the field. And college supervisors must recognize and support the school system's efforts to recruit teachers for its staff. But having said that, let me hasten to add that anytime recruitment becomes any higher than third priority in the list of three reasons given above, the school system is down-grading its professional responsibilities for the whole student teaching program.

The third of my three factors in achieving successful cooperation between school systems and universities in student teaching is an intent to make it work. I suppose if we achieve the first two factors, mutual respect and a common purpose, the third one is likely to come. But the intent to make it work must be there and must be continually supported. If universities turn the entire task of student teaching over to the schools, or if schools try to exploit student teachers to fill the gaps in their own teaching staffs, then the result is chaos. We must both try constantly or there will be no improvement.

Before I close, let me take a moment to look into the future of student teaching from the point of view of a public school administrator directly involved in student teaching and professionally dedicated to its improvement. To me, the following seven areas seem to require our attention:

1. Sponsoring teachers (the title the Detroit Public Schools uses for supervising or "critic" teachers) must be selected with care and must be trained for their work. The universities, the school administration, and the teachers themselves must be involved in this selection. And the training must be a joint responsibility of school systems and universities.
2. Principals and the supervisory staffs of school systems must assume more responsibility for the training of student teachers. Every student teacher must feel that he is an accepted, respected, welcome member of the school's staff.
3. Sponsoring teachers must be relieved of part of their teaching loads so that they have more time to work with student teachers. If there is to be more federal or state money to support student teaching, this is where I think this money should go.
4. The role of the sponsoring teacher must be given more status. I urge college people to invite sponsoring teachers to their campuses to talk to classes and to student groups, to make

them members of some of the university committees which make policy for student teaching, to coauthor professional papers with them, and to do anything possible to make them realize the value of their help in the student teaching program.

5. University personnel must become more directly involved in the work of the schools, in research, in curriculum development, in the creation of instructional materials, even in actual classroom teaching.
6. Time schedules for student teaching must become more flexible, preferably by extending the period of training into the first year of teaching so that training and induction are one continuous process.
7. The voice of the teacher must be listened to. This year the Detroit Federation of Teachers, the collective bargaining agent for the Detroit staff, included the increase in the stipend paid to sponsoring teachers in their list of "demands" on the school system. Regardless of how this proposal is settled, it is clear that universities must either listen to teachers in this area of our work in common or enter into a battle with them. I prefer the mutual discussion now rather than the battle later. But the hour is already late and the battle may have already begun. If so, let's end it with this year's preliminary skirmish rather than escalate it into next year's full-scale war.

Student teaching is a vital part of teacher education. It has a valid past and a bright future. But its function needs to be studied and its operation improved. Let us enjoy our achievements in this area, recognize the improvements that need to be made, and move ahead confidently. We are doing this job well; let us try to do it better. And let us accept the contributions which the colleges and the schools can make to the total job and seek to gain for each other all of the mutual satisfaction which can be found in the solid exercise of professional achievement.

D. The Role of Professional Organizations in Partnerships in Teacher Education

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The idea that several agencies should collaborate with colleges and universities in a partnership to educate teachers is comparatively new. To many educators, the role of professional organizations in such a partnership seems unimportant; some even doubt that an association could make any significant contribution to a partnership effort.

Arguments against a partnership of this kind are that colleges and universities have the major responsibility for the formal training of teachers. Schools and colleges have traditionally assumed the responsibility for in-service teacher education. The personnel of schools and colleges include most of the people concerned with teacher education. The participation of educators under association auspices merely causes conflicts in intent and leads to confusion and overlap.

Before attempting to answer these arguments, perhaps it would be well to ask the following questions: Why should professional associations participate with other agencies in teacher education? Does the professional association have anything unique to contribute? Are there roles professional associations can play that cannot be assumed by other institutions or agencies?

Because professional associations do not have so obvious a role as colleges in educating teachers, i.e., they do not offer courses or seminars for teachers or provide a practicum in learning how to teach, it is easy to ignore the important role they can or do play. For example, the emphasis of this book, and the Workshop it reports, had its origin in professional associations.

One of the problems in recognizing roles in a partnership is that the usual definition of teacher education is too limiting. There is more to it than courses and formal study at the university or in-service education in public schools. Teacher education should include all of the educative experiences undertaken by teachers both prior to and during practice. It should also include the administrative, theoretical, and scholarly study; the requirements and standards; the legal and political considerations; and the government support and control that relate to the education of teachers.

Professional associations have some unique roles to play in making their contribution to a partnership in teacher education. First of all, they have their role as a *professional* society, a voluntary community of scholars; in this case, one with special expertness in and concern for teacher education. Professional societies do include the same people who make up the staffs of institutions and agencies that have a responsibility for educating teachers; but the forum, the assembly, the organization they provide are different. For one thing, the professional society is devoid of administrative hierarchy in the sense that one man has power over another by virtue of the job and rank he holds. It is also a forum where it should be possible to examine the merits of an idea with scholarly objectivity—where controversy and dissent can be voiced without recriminations. A professional association should be able to take a position and exert influence where needed; in legislative halls or with state boards of education, it can serve as the voice of the profession.

The professional association has an important role to play as an autonomous and independent—yet responsible—group that can check and balance the educational, political, and social responsibility of institutions of education. This watchdog role becomes increasingly important as school-college relationships in teacher education become more complex and interrelated. For example, the quality of a college program is influenced by various approaches to program approval or accreditation; professional associations can play an important role in determining standards and procedures and in providing financial support for evaluating college programs of teacher education. If a working partnership is one criterion of a good program, accreditation could include an assessment of such collaboration.

Professional associations also play an important role in establishing and maintaining requirements for licensure or certification of teachers. Such requirements influence the nature and scope of both preservice and in-service teacher education programs.

Perhaps the most significant role assumed by professional associations up to the present is the sponsorship of conventions and of ad hoc committees to study specific problems. Presentations and discussions at professional meetings have had a major, yet indirect, influence on programs of teacher education. Most of the thinking and theory on the nature and need for partnerships among schools, colleges, state departments, and professional associations in teacher education have developed under the auspices of professional associations. Theoretical and research papers prepared for professional meetings or by ad hoc committees form the major literature on partnerships in teacher education.

Despite its short history, there have been numerous and rapid changes in teacher education that have altered the quality, status, and attitude of teachers. The growing militancy of teachers in fighting for a greater voice in decisions affecting them has been greatly influenced by the better selection of teacher candidates, the improvement in quality, and the extension in length of preservice teacher education programs.

A form of partnership in teacher education is developing between school districts and local teacher associations where some type of negotiations agreement exists for determining policies, procedures, and requirements for in-service education of teachers. Increasingly, a partnership is developing among several professional groups and institutions; professional practices commissions and professional standards boards, as well as advisory committees on teacher education, have developed at the state level in many states. Professional associations have given a major impetus to many of these developments. The prospects of developing local or regional panels for both practice and standards will bring professional association efforts on these problems much closer to action in a partnership.

The role of professional associations in most partnership arrangements with other groups in teacher education is still only in a formative stage. One reason for this is that the concept of a partnership is new; a second is that professional organizations of teachers are in the becoming state of being professional. Professional associations will become *professional* in orientation only as their individual members assume the rights and responsibilities of members of a *profession.*

Attaining better understanding and becoming more professional can be accomplished in part by facing issues with which professional associations must grapple in considering the partnership idea. Some of these issues are suggested by the following questions:

1. To what extent should professional associations negotiate standards for teacher education in the local school setting?
2. Can professional associations exert political influence at the local and state level without becoming too partisan in point of view?
3. What is an appropriate balance or distribution for professional associations between scholarly objectivity and a political point of view?
4. To what extent can responsibilities in a partnership in teacher education be identified and fixed at the local and state levels?
5. What organization and structure are necessary or essential to assure productive relationships among the various institutions (schools, colleges, and agencies) involved in partnership arrangements?
6. To what extent can there be clarity about local and state responsibility in teacher education?
7. How can enough unity be developed in a professional association to capitalize on the power of its members?
8. Should power be sought—but also feared?
9. Could power be gained too quickly? How much apprenticeship in the use of power is needed?
10. How does a professional association organize its membership for action?

These are some of the questions that state and local professional associations must discuss and resolve within each organization and with their counterparts before they can join in an effective partnership for the education of teachers.

E. Perspectives on University-School Collaboration in a Research and Development Center

A Report to the Policy Board of the Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences, Harvard Graduate School of Education

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Introduction

This report is an analysis of a series of interviews with members of the Policy Board of the Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences, with some Center project directors, and with several others at the Harvard Graduate School of Education (HGSE) who also have a deep interest in how the Center can best fulfill the promise many have sensed in it. The interviews, done after a year of operation, were focussed on the question: How can the Center make a difference in classrooms? Before proceeding to the first of three perspectives into which the comments have been organized, there is need for a brief explanation of the report's rationale, its structure, and its use of individual opinions.

This is not a confidential paper. It contains no secrets; it names no names. Most of the problems discussed are neither new or highly abstruse. Yet I think many readers may find it a little surprising here and there. It will, I hope, demonstrate that some opinions and orientations are more widespread and more deeply felt than one would suspect from a description of all the activities currently being carried on under the Center's auspices. One especially discontented and vehement member of the policy board, whom I happened to interview early in this endeavor, predicted—only half in jest—that I would discover three groups: a few who were highly critical, as he was, of some things about the Center; many who might have noticed some of the same phenomena, but would excuse them by saying, "we're still in the planning stage"; and a goodly number, not at HGSE, who would say, "The R & D Center? What's that? Ah yes, tell me how they are doing lately!" To reduce such feelings of relative isolation and powerlessness, and thus pave the way for action, is one of my main reasons for presenting such a host of criticisms and constructive suggestions.

Furthermore, I believe that impatience and irritation with organizations are often forms of masked optimism. They frequently connote an underlying conviction that great things could be accomplished if only this or that enmeshing difficulty could be understood and overcome. This seems a productive and just way to look at the mixture of disenchantment, hope, puzzlement, vitality, and useful ideas which follows.

Structurally, the report is a series of *perspectives* or general vantage points on the Center. Originally I planned to organize all the data from the interviews into a series of *problems;* but the more people I interviewed, the less able I was to figure out how to divide up the material. Finally someone pointed out to me that something is a problem only if seen from certain points of view. Take for instance the frequent comment that, on the whole, project directors are not very well-informed about what is going on in other projects. To some this is an organizational flaw which better channels of communication can remedy. To others it is only a symptom of an underlying and serious problem. To still others, whether or not the project directors communicate is a matter of small concern in their hierarchy of Center problems. And one researcher even thought that the limited communication was an advantage. So there is no "communication problem" apart from the way individuals see the whole organization.

Instead of sorting the material into problems, therefore, I have assembled it into perspectives. At the risk of sounding overly fanciful, let me try to make the notion of a perspective more concrete. Imagine the Center as a very large and complicated three-dimensional figure. A perspective is a vantage point—just outside it, inside it, far away from it, etc., from which some things loom large, while others are hazy or distant; some things are usually shaded ominous and gloomy, while others have a more promising gleam. A perspective as used here is not a fixed set of opinions, but a general way of looking within which fairly wide variation is possible.

As for the particular perspectives chosen, they are theoretical artifacts which seemed the most useful and clearest way of structuring a very diverse collection of statements and questions. They do not correspond to groups of people. On the contrary, a number of those interviewed may find opinions of theirs expressed in two or even three perspectives.

In presenting viewpoints within this structure, I have made liberal use of verbatim quotes, partly for vividness and pungency of phrase, and partly as a means of illustrating how widespread an idea is without having to identify the speakers. The statements that are not verbatim are paraphrases; syntheses or summaries of a number of remarks; or occasionally, interpretations or opinions of my own. These I have tried to keep to a minimum so that the candor and directness which characterized the original interviews can be transmitted to the readers of this report as completely as possible.

First Perspective

This perspective appears first because more people said more things that fit into it than into either of the others. In the foreground, overshadowing any other problems, is a large and obvious gap between the University and the participating school systems. HGSE appears withdrawn, highly research-oriented as opposed to service-oriented, and unresponsive to the everyday needs and problems of the school systems. The conventional research-development-dissemination model suggested by the Office of Education's description of R & D Centers, whereby the results of basic research are transmuted into curriculum development, and eventually disseminated to school systems, is seriously questioned if not rejected.

With this general orientation, such questions as whether the currently funded research projects form a coherent unit, or whether there is enough communication among them, are understandably not prominent. Nor is the question of whether HGSE staff have "answers" very prominent; more importance is attached to their genuine personal involvement in school affairs. Long-range, highly controlled research and development is not rejected as such; there is, rather, a sense of great imbalance in Center activities. The key words which recur in suggested remedies are involvement, personal contact, and two-way.

I want to emphasize that this is *not* a schoolman's view of the R & D Center as opposed to a researcher's view. To have made that kind of division would only have widened that school-university gap which those who have this perspective feel urgently must be closed.

Separations Between Schools and University:

To elaborate on this summary, I will first present a group of quotes which makes the picture of HGSE as standoffish and preoccupied with its own research concerns more vivid and explicit, then go into the various rationales and strategies suggested for closing the school-university gap: interpretation of research results for teachers, teacher-initiated research, R & D directors in the schools, and so on.

Here, then, is a barrage of remarks, each made by a different person. Since only four of those quoted are full-time schoolmen, obviously some remarks come from the very people that other remarks are meant to be about.

> "The Center is not the private kingdom of Harvard."
>
> "Up to the present, all the Center has asked us to do is give guinea pigs."
>
> "One thing I expect is that we will lose the interest of our member school systems if we proceed in the present way. More faculty members will do more research studies in schools, but I think these studies will have less influence on changing schools—they're done *on* the schools, not *with* them."
>
> "I can see our wanting to use them (cooperating systems), but I can't see anyone obligating themselves to repay."
>
> "One thing that makes this (working together) difficult is the rampant snobbishness of the faculty. In general the impression I get is that the source of all knowledge and power is Larson Hall, and everyone else should stand outside panting."

> "The information is flowing all one way. . . . The conduit isn't open wide enough."
>
> "If this R & D Center was constructed simply to provide a more formal way (for researchers) to get at teachers, it will fail. We have a good structure but we haven't made any changes in the attitude of the basic researcher at Harvard. The needs of the systems are not making an impact. It's not all the professor's fault—school people have not expressed their needs."
>
> "Probably the teachers in the cooperating systems don't know a thing about the Center."
>
> "I have the usual paranoic impression that a small clique makes the decisions in its own interests. . . . I have no sense of participating in policy decision making. . . . I have a strong feeling that the Center is concerned more with *R* than *D*. . . . We need people who are willing to accept the role of going out to serve the school rather than having the school serve them. Unless people have a sense of being respected in their involvement, they back away."
>
> "If you want to move into a school system, sit around and listen to the teachers. See where you can be of help."
>
> "Most school people feel that the Center is still University-oriented, and decisions tend to reflect the interests of senior faculty members, rather than those of the systems."
>
> "There is clearly at the moment a primacy of taking, not giving. We should seriously consider whether it is not our function to provide services of certain kinds."

This list could be continued, but the general perspective should be clear enough. Naturally the long-standing tradition of usually distant and cool school-university relations, to which the Center is heir (SUPRAD[15] notwithstanding), cannot be altered overnight; but feeling is strong that a Center which was deliberately created as a consortium of interests should be further along than it is now in finding ways to deal with the problem.

Two Types of Educational Research:

What can it mean to serve school systems, to help them with what they see as their problems, if not to provide them with ready-made answers and packaged products labeled "Recommended by HGSE"? One thing I discovered it can mean, among those interviewed, is a different way of choosing and carrying out research projects. And here a characteristic but not fundamental difference between schoolmen and HGSE-Center staff was encountered: starting from the same sense of urgency and the same perspective, but with different training, they give different descriptions of what needs to be done. Since this difference in proposed remedies has often, I think, been mistaken for a sharp difference in fundamental perspective and commitment, it needs to be explained in more detail.

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[15] An earlier school-university collaboration called The School-University Program for Research and Development.

One concerned researcher put it this way:

> There are two styles of research in education. In "Type A," the essential interest is in contributing to a body of theory. You design studies, invade classrooms, withdraw and examine the data, and plan the next study. In "Type B," you focus on a group of students. You continually change the design and tactics of your study as you observe the results. If one theory or curriculum doesn't work, you throw it out and try something else.

According to this researcher, "Harvard has always cleverly managed to get involved with schools but not focussed on the kids." To ever have any substantial impact on practice, researchers need to make long-range commitments to work in live classroom situations. But, he continued, "It is often said that the classroom is too messy to do research. One of the problems is that we don't have the theory to deal with messy phenomena." I get the impression, then, this type of research will call for more, rather than less, expertise on the part of those who conduct it; it is consequently not clear how great a role competent teachers, unskilled in advanced research techniques and unfamiliar with elaborate theories of instruction, could play in it. Possibly they could become conversant enough with the techniques and theories involved in particular projects to participate intelligently under the direction of a highly trained researcher.

Teacher-Researcher Project:

Another approach initiated by researchers for closing the gap is embodied in the teacher-researcher project—often mentioned by schoolmen as one of the most encouraging of the Center's undertakings. The project team has written a series of working papers; in each of them a major theoretical concept in child development is explored to see what implications it may hold for the classroom. After the project team has carefully selected a group of teachers capable of responding creatively to the interpreted research by drawing added implications of their own, they plan a series of joint teacher-researcher papers, and eventually a book.

This project's researchers are acting as mediators, translating and interpreting and sifting a body of often abstruse-sounding material to discover what is relevant for teachers. Some of them wonder: "But then, what are you really doing to the research? How much will the finished product resemble the raw material?" Looked at another way, this difficulty in presenting research results so that they are really intelligible and meaningful to teachers might show that researchers in education are by and large using inappropriate patterns borrowed from psychology and other behavioral sciences; they have rarely *first* studied the problems teachers have, *then* devised suitable measurements. In this sense the teacher-researcher project indirectly demonstrates the need for more "Type B" research, once again presumably done by experts who can devise reliable ways of measuring and describing subtle constellations of factors present in the classroom situation.

Teacher-Initiated Research:

Laudable and encouraging as this project aimed at interpreting "Type A" research and the call for "Type B" research may be, neither completely fits the description of research growing out of teachers' needs which I heard from several schoolmen. To make this clear, let me present a schoolmen's view of the teacher-researcher project, followed by a description of their suggestion for closing the gap: teacher-initiated research. Two schoolmen I interviewed were enthusiastic about the project, yet expressed concern about what would happen if the criteria for selecting participating teachers were set up by the researchers. They feared the project team would "hold the mirror up" and get someone like themselves "rather than the average, good, innovative teacher." Moreover, one of them contrasted the project with another one he knew of, still in the planning stage, in which a group of forty teachers would meet for about a week with an expert in cognitive development, present classroom learning problems, and see how theory could be brought to bear on them. The organizer of this latter project is "fundamentally a schoolman. His idea is to take a practical problem and see how research bears on it." The teacher-researcher project team, on the other hand, wants "to take a theoretical concept and see its implications for the classroom."

Genuinely teacher-initiated research, as opposed to "Type B" research or efforts to make research intelligible to teachers, apparently ought to be judged by a different set of criteria. The several schoolmen who expressed themselves on this point, including a few with some university affiliation and research skill, were unanimous that there ought to be a double standard. Far from being patronizing, this double standard would be both a "recognition of reality" and a realization that teacher-initiated research—perhaps better called experimentation—provides a different sort of purpose, vitality, and impetus for change than does the work of highly trained researchers. Through it, teachers can become more informed, more enthusiastic about trying to make changes, and more receptive to gradual reformulations of the problems they had originally defined. A short group of quotations describes it more explicitly:

> "The idea (coming from a school system) may be näive, unsophisticatedly described, full of fairly obvious pitfalls, but coming from a system that's in a rut . . . here is the first little green stem . . . let's nourish the intent. In the support of this effort you will create an atmosphere—as people become more

> enthusiastic about submitting proposals, you can become more critical. If you really want to have an impact, you take them at their relative level of readiness. . . . It's somewhat like writing a paper. You write the rough draft, improve the ideas, organization, etc. It could grow into a rigorous research project. But if you look at it in the beginning and say, 'What is the control group? What are the clearly stated hypotheses? And what are the instruments?' you dismiss it."
>
> "If you can get a teacher to look more critically at her function and at the whole process of learning, you're really going to get a good climate. Many are more research-conscious than we realize—we don't call it that, and they don't call it that. But a good teacher is constantly trying things out."
>
> "We're talking about the stimulation of a person in a school. It's not 'research' in the narrow sense, but look at the built-in dissemination. But research projects, as the Center thinks of them, are not going to be developed by the classroom teacher."
>
> (The double standard) "That's OK. Then when we get involved in some more legitimate things . . . we will participate in a more informed way. Then the classroom teacher will not simply be used. They may even be able to contribute better feedback to the researchers."

These researchers' and teachers' approaches, responses to a similar perception of need developed by people with different sorts of training, seem to be complementary rather than in opposition. Lack of enough money to go round would seem, at first sight, to be the only reason why they could not go on simultaneously and reinforce one another. However, though "Type B" research has a legitimate air, interpretation of basic research for teachers fits less obviously into the research-development-dissemination paradigm set up by the Office of Education; and small-scale scattered teacher-initiated research—even with considerable consultant help—seems to fit badly.

Perhaps we need two sorts of financial policy: one for long-range research and development (concentrate the resources) and the other for all short-term efforts to bring the teacher and the researcher closer together (spread the wealth and spread the findings). These scattered projects and confrontations would have a conceptual unity as variants of a single process of narrowing the teacher-researcher gap; all such projects could thus be analyzed for useful generalizations about process, regardless of, or in relation to, their great substantive variety. "This could become a major focus of Center activity."

Questioning the Research-Development-Dissemination Model (USOE):

Perhaps, also, the research-development-dissemination model is insufficient for a genuinely cooperative school-university effort. It is especially limited if interpreted to mean only "research, *then* development, *then* dissemination." As one person put it:

> "Development" to me would mean the introduction of a new approach and new services. Say I had some notion for a project. . . . We might get enough out of it to get some hypotheses that might be researchable, we might not. And we may have to say, "Do this because we have a hunch it will work." *D* may precede *R*, or follow *R*, or be a separate entity.

In addition to this objection, the standard paradigm in its most undisguised form is often unpalatable to school systems. As someone else put it, "I don't think the Center should look upon itself as something that generates a lot of great things and brings them on a silver platter to the schools. This is the guaranteed way to accomplish nothing." Efforts to get rid of the silver platter image by involving teachers in the development process would very likely be more convincing if at least some teachers were concurrently encouraged to innovate and experiment on their own.

Another limitation perceived in this paradigm is that, by implication, it makes a sharp distinction between research and field service, so that service does not seem a natural function of an institution devoted to research-development-dissemination. Paul Lazarsfeld's reasoning in *Organizing Educational Research*[16] is as follows:

> University administrators seem to have become increasingly aware of the advantage of separating research and service. . . . It should not be concluded . . . that field services requested by a local client cannot contribute to basic knowledge in the given field. . . . But the character of applied research in education and the conditions under which it is pursued seem to hamper the enrichment of basic knowledge . . . a . . . serious matter . . . is the widespread demand for field services rather than research findings. . . . Lacking a clear idea of what constitutes research, practitioners may well confuse the latter with field services, which consist largely of consultation and social bookkeeping. This could lead them to believe that they have fulfilled their obligations to keep in touch with the frontiers of scholarly activity by commissioning a field service worker to conduct a survey of the school system or to give advice on educational trends which should be followed in order to "keep up to date."

Though surely this is an unflattering description of service, it presents attitudes and activities typical for school systems and universities. However, those I interviewed who are especially concerned with bridging the school-university gap seem to be asking for more activity falling midway between the two poles he defines. "Lazarsfeld's dichotomy is too sharply drawn. There's no reason why in helping the schools, you can't improve their researchability and get some good research done." The thrust of Lazarsfeld's objection is that field services are too scattered, impressionistic and filled with "former practitioners rather than academic researchers" to add much to a body of theory—i.e., to function as "Type A" research. But from this first perspective, that is hardly an objection. So from this first vantage point, it seems desirable to reexamine not only how to conduct educational research, but how to integrate it productively with activities that fall on the creative upper borderline of what is commonly called field service.

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[16] Lazarsfeld, Paul Felix, and Sieber, Sam D. *Organizing Educational Research: An Exploration.* Englewood, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964. pp. 37, 40, 52-3.

Liaison Role Needed:

It has been shown that a perspective in which HGSE appears withdrawn and overacademic, not serving school needs, leads to a variety of plans for getting reseachers to cope with the classroom and encouraging teachers to experiment. Another recurrent theme within this perspective is the need for people in specific liaison roles between HGSE and cooperating systems. Often people mentioned the lack of R & D directors in most of the cooperating systems as a crucial and significant weakness in the proposed cooperative effort. I began to feel a little as if we were all "Waiting for Godot": little could happen until people could be found to fill these slots, yet suitable people had not materialized, and no one seemed sure where to find them or even whether they existed. To date only one of the six slots has been officially filled. I shall present some opinions as to what such a liaison person ought to be like and why such key posts, implicit in even the earliest planning for the Center, remain unfilled; these will be followed by suggestions for supportive, temporary, and alternative ways of creating workable school-university liaisons.

These are some characterizations of the liaison role:

> "Part of this (problem) will work itself out when the Center really becomes operable, and it will when these R & D people become active, and start working with clusters of teachers, developing their tiny projects. An important role of the R & D coordinator would be to go around, start talking, observing in classrooms, find individuals who are developing classroom research projects."
>
> "Frankly, I don't see this particular job as a very esoteric kind of job. . . . My notion is a marriage broker, not a researcher. I'm not saying research isn't necessary to these systems. . . . But it's not a *sine qua non.* I would be suspicious of a person who could only design research neatly for this job. It's low on my galaxy of attributes. A person who could be patient and listen—that's high."
>
> "There ought to be a Center person who could sit down with a principal, who in turn could draw on faculty members."

"Maybe it doesn't work out in practice, but the idea would be to get someone close to (superintendents), and close to R & D, constantly figuring out in little ways how to bring R & D to the schools."

Why has there been a so long a wait for R & D directors? One explanation is that "initially both Harvard and the systems set their sights too high." People reasonably well grounded in both research and teaching, who are also patient and good listeners, and willing to travel around from school to school, must be a rarity anywhere. On the other hand, intensive wide-range recruiting for these positions, setting forth a core job description with several possible variations, has not really been tried. Neither has the Center made a definite attempt to train interested people already competent in *either* teaching *or* research for these roles.

Training for Research—Teachers:

For instance, as a supplement or temporary alternative to R & D directors, the Center might select a small group of skilled and innovative teachers representing elementary and secondary levels in all the cooperating systems. One schoolman suggested that these teachers, already known and respected in their home schools, could go through a specially designed, intensive program during the summer. Through acquaintance in some depth with at least one longitudinal study in child development, several long-range curriculum development projects, and a number of short-term but thoughtfully designed studies, the teachers could break through the haze of mystery and remoteness that often surrounds research.

In learning about a longitudinal study currently in progress at the Center, for example, the teachers might meet for explanation, discussion, and questions with a dozen different members of the project staff, one or two at a time, in a given week. Instead of discussing research problems in the abstract, each researcher would describe a stage or problem as it was embodied in this particular study: compiling a bibliography of previous literature, choosing a sample, devising and validating test instruments, and so forth. With curriculum development, the teachers could explore what the assumptions behind the project were, what the field testers looked for in student reactions and achievements, why and how the materials were revised, etc. In addition, if there were a modest curriculum center, teachers could examine recent materials in their special fields. Center partners WGBH (educational broadcasting and television) and ESI (Educational Services, Inc.) could play an active role by arranging to introduce the group to the inner workings of selected on-going projects in curriculum and communications systems.

Such an initiation, of course, would not be intended to train the teachers in actual research design. Rather, it would give them some sensitivity to the problems and activities of the researchers and teach them to think constructively about which types of classrooms and school problems they already were familiar with which would be amenable to small-scale innovation and experimentation. In addition, they would have a host of personal contacts among HGSE researchers, on whose experience they could draw in a friendly, informal fashion. Perhaps some of their small projects could eventually become "Type B" research. During the school year the teachers could be released from classroom responsibility to have systematic, extensive conferences with other teachers at their home school and perhaps one or two others in order to encourage promising-looking ideas. As they grew within this new job role, many might wish to return to HGSE for another summer or full year in order to obtain more rigorous and specialized training.

One added advantage of such a pilot training program is that it would give many researchers, particularly those whose projects may have "nothing to disseminate" in the form of valid results for several years, a chance for direct contact and free exchange of ideas with classroom teachers; yet it would not take much time from any one person's work. In fact, two such groups of teachers could probably be moved through this type of summer program, one a week or so later than the other, without disrupting the pace of anyone's research.

Use of Doctoral Candidates:

Another temporary or supportive approach which was suggested would be to use HGSE doctoral candidates for part-time liaison roles. The school systems could decide what sort of parallel, short-term training program could best introduce them to the complexities of local conditions. Then they could be assigned to one or two schools and spend a preliminary period listening and becoming acquainted with everyone. Customarily a number of doctoral candidates have had part-time jobs supervising Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) candidates. Considering that the alternative system of resident supervision has been introduced, and that in any event the number of Master of Arts in Teaching students is likely to be reduced according to the plan of the Scheffler Report,[17] a new liaison role for doctoral students could be introduced as an alternative to supervision.

Involving Middle-Level Administrators:

To increase personal contacts still further, it has been suggested that the Center staff ought to become directly involved with middle-level administrators—principals, department heads, and supervisors. What should happen? Suggestions include a series of small group meetings with selected Center staff, intended to create more open attitudes toward innovation and experimentation; more substantively oriented, periodic group meetings with particular Center researchers whose current research-interest the administrators can understand and share; and conferences directly related to small innovative projects which the Center is supporting within their schools.

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[17] A report of the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Education on graduate study in education.

In short, the need for personal contact dominates this perspective.

> Personal contact is the way you make friends and influence people. It's the way you improve a school system. Bulletins, directives, memoranda, reports—we are inundated. . . . If we could only slenderize the written materials and somehow or other accentuate the personal contacts of researcher and teacher, not an artificial contact but a continuing thing, so that when he goes into the classroom he is regarded as a partner and not as "one of those observers from Harvard."

Need for a Curriculum Center:

One final suggestion for bridging the school-university gap (also an indirect way of generating more personal contacts, but primarily a source of information) is a curriculum center. Hardly a new idea for the Center, this proposed collection of instructional materials is almost always mentioned in the same breath as the clearinghouse in planning documents and early executive committee meetings. Even though the two were seemingly as inseparable as Tweedledum and Tweedledee, the clearinghouse came into being and the curriculum center has not. A large, comprehensive, and elaborate center will in all probability be part of the proposed REL (Regional Educational Laboratory). But even so, the R & D Center might be well advised to assemble and house a modest center of its own, accessible to all teachers in the cooperating systems and all HGSE staff and students.

Summaries of Remaining Perspectives Reported

The second perspective is a view from within. In the foreground is the need for more interconnectedness among Center projects and more joint effort by Center researchers. Dissemination to school systems is in the background, partly because few projects have definite results to disseminate as yet.

Some respondents attribute the lack of sustained cooperative effort to the way the Center was originally put together: there is a deliberately broad problem area designed to include the interests of first-rate "prima donna" researchers who presumably would be unwilling to let administrators tell them what they ought to be doing. Yet it is often the "first-raters" themselves who express the need for more unity of conception and purpose in the Center's research effort.

People seem caught in a value conflict between the traditional independence of the university professor—which in Harvard's graduate liberal arts faculties and elsewhere often leads to coteries and backbiting within departments—and the not very clear demands of a new situation for cooperation and group effort. Though the "star system" seems a poor model for a professional school which proposed to intervene significantly in the education development of a metropolitan area, this model seems to affect the way many people act, react, and make decisions at the Center.

Interestingly, relatively few solutions were proposed for the problem seen in this second perspective, as contrasted with the variety of new ideas suggested for closing the school-university gap.

The third perspective is a view from afar. Comments focus on the paucity of substantive knowledge and the lack of clearly understood purposes within the whole field of education, rather than at the Center in particular. Since our current ability to evaluate is too tenuous, some people place a high value on informed intuition; others stress the need for more rigorous evaluation. Since the process of evaluation makes no sense in the absence of agreed upon goals, still others concentrate on the lack of such explicit values and goals around which research and development could be oriented. This definition of goals is further complicated by the implicit value component in many social science concepts often assumed to be neutral.

Thinking of the Center as an organizational structure which can mesh or intertwine with other organizations, many people concerned with long-range goals do become specific about what the Center's relation ought to be to certain other groups. Comments focus on the strong outer and inner pressures for the Center to become more involved with inner city schools, and on the Center's relation to the broadly based Regional Educational Laboratory (REL). Others are acutely concerned with what they consider the Center's mistaken concentration on schools, as opposed to other educative institutions and processes within the community, or its perhaps mistaken concentration on the dissemination of research, as opposed to more political and calculated ways of bringing about change.

The fourth is an historical perspective. It contains excerpts from relevant memoranda and minutes, presented in chronological order without any comment. Readers may thus discover any ways in which current Center problems are foreshadowed or illuminated by these excerpts. They are not a balanced selection from the documents in question, but were chosen because they dealt with school-university relations, how the Center was assembled, and how the rationale for funding or not funding certain types of projects evolved.

Conclusion

The conclusion summarizes the models, emphases, and needs that are in competition at the Center: downward-flow dissemination versus rigorous research, immediate versus long-range impact, autonomy versus interdependence, and city versus suburbs. In general, people seem more divided within themselves on these issues than divided into little factions.

Because of these differences in perspectives and goals, theories and strategies of change will not, in themselves, solve any of the Center's problems. Prior decisions and commitments have to be made before the subtleties of a particular strategy become useful. In other words, theory can influence a wise policy, but at a more basic level commitments precede the adoption of procedures for bringing about change.

Author's Note: Since this report was issued (February, 1966) many changes have taken place at the Center. Several new programs have been initiated which aim at closing the school-university gap. These include "Assisting Teacher to Conduct Research," in which fifteen teachers are carrying out their own studies under the guidance of a senior researcher; "Summer Institute to Train Teachers in a Liaison Role," in which twenty-six teachers were trained as agents of change within their schools and are now acting in this new role; and "Interdisciplinary Teams," in which a small group of researchers and master teachers can respond to the request of a school, and work with them closely for as long as a year on some major problem. In addition, the slots for R & D directors have been filled. Other and more major changes in programs and policies are in process.

A copy of the full text of "Perspectives on the R & D Center" (mimeo) may be obtained by writing to Center for Research and Development on Educational Differences, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

F. Issues and Problems as Viewed by a Large, Multi-Purpose State University Located in a Small City in Establishing Off-Campus Student Teaching Operations

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Michigan State University is located in the small city of East Lansing. The 30,000 residents support a middle-sized school district. Four thousand students are enrolled by the university—2,000 of whom are scheduled in student teaching or internship each year. It is quite apparent that laboratory and field experiences for this enrollment could not be adequately provided by the local schools or a campus demonstration school.

In the early 1950's, the faculty decided to develop student teaching contracts with Michigan public school districts rather than erect a campus laboratory school or saturate East Lansing classrooms. At first the nearby cities of Lansing and Jackson and smaller communities such as St. Johns, Holt, and Charlotte were utilized. Student teachers were bused to and from assigned classrooms each day. Faculty time, student teacher fatigue, and transportation costs motivated a resident student teacher center development.

As enrollments increased, off-campus centers were developed in Battle Creek, Grand Rapids, Birmingham, Saginaw-Bay City, Traverse City, Flint, and Pontiac. The distance from East Lansing precluded daily or weekly transportation. Full-time student teaching resulted from the Marshall Study, and student teachers were required to reside in the resident centers.

Originally student teaching coordinators were persons who were appointed jointly by the school district and university faculty. As enrollments rose and programs became more comprehensive, full university faculty appointments were created. In 1966, Michigan State University maintained seventeen resident student teaching programs in most major population centers, including Detroit, and in strategic non-urban locations in Michigan.

University Centered Issues:

Several decisions were crucial to the development of the vast network of student teaching and intern centers. It was decided not to utilize the children of university faculty as a typical pupil population for student teaching in a campus laboratory school. The multi-university faculties had to be convinced that majors in history, mathematics, science, and English—to name a few—could be assigned away from the parent campus for a full-time quarter of study in the public schools without seriously contaminating the undergraduate program. It was allowed that the sacred sequence of courses could be interrupted in order to provide realistic full-time laboratory experiences. The move to typical Michigan school communities was an important decision for the sixties.

Many conversations among the university colleges were initiated and are still maintained through an All-University Teacher Education Council, which meets monthly to discuss teacher education at Michigan State. This group supports full-time student teaching and endorsed development of an elementary internship which contains five quarters away from the East Lansing campus. The importance of field and laboratory experiences in teacher education programs at the undergraduate level must be recognized by the liberal arts faculties and consistently supported by them.

The education faculty continually converses with major content department faculties in an effort to refine the structure of teaching majors, as well as the relationship between content discipline concepts and the population of learners to be served in the public schools. Frequently, undergraduate liberal arts faculties wish to ignore the college student's application of knowledge in the society. Teaching careers —the interpretation of concepts to others—is not the concern of the several professors of the sciences. A new generation of scholars in science and arts may see the social responsibility of graduates in their particular field and may yet discover ways to maintain the integrity of content major and scholarship and still encourage the meaningful application of knowledge in the future society. University-wide recognition of departmental responsibility for 2,000 teacher candidates is a problem demanding continuous faculty dialogue.

Teacher education is not a glamour operation. It is far less spectacular than scientific research, and less newsworthy than developments in business and industry curriculums. Teacher graduates are not yet powerful alumni nor the large potential contributors. The typical university budget demonstrates the low visibility or priority for teacher education. We are just finding ways to obtain large public and private grants consistently, and larger portions of the university budgets for teacher education, despite the record number of teacher graduates over the years. The education faculty must initiate action which would provide greater support for field and laboratory experiences. In the past, we have been guilty of designing student teaching programs to fit the handout, misusing our public school friends, and hoping someone some day would rescue us.

The university budget is a matter of public record. If it does not reflect priority or importance of teacher education, it is very obvious to current and prospective faculty. The importance of field or laboratory assignments is also immediately obvious to new faculty. Most senior faculty decline extensive student teaching assignments. This indicates the low priority given such experiences. Many believe that any new faculty member can do an adequate job in this role. If split assignments are the rule, coordination of the student teachers usually receives lowest priority from the campus based professor. Coordinating student teachers from the university campus is one problem; to reside 100 miles from campus and coordinate student teachers is quite another.

The traditional image of the college professor does not include his residing in the real world, isolated in some ways from the professional dialogue of the college of education building. Separation from the cultural milieu certainly can be a problem for some out-of-state based coordinators. However, the metropolitan Detroit cultural milieu is perhaps more comprehensive than most major university communities in the world. Individual imagination and initiative is the only thing that can isolate any college professor in our four-hour jet world.

The Resident Coordinator—A University Person, School Based:

Colleges are not recruiting resident center coordinators from campus ranks. New coordinators come from outside the university family: from public schools. These are new professors who believe in the partnership in teacher education.

In those few cases where we have moved an occasional professor from his campus sanctuary, his professorial stance has immediately alienated the public school clientele, who realistically challenge his pontifications, his inability to demonstrate how, his unwillingness to concede another's point of view. The real world is not ideal: human beings are not naturally theoretically defined and motivated, and cannot be summarily dismissed upon completion of a series of lectures or tests. Accountability is not something a resident coordinator can move away from; he is very accessible to his several publics. Perhaps the fact that he has no place to hide, no study carrel in the library labyrinth, no escape from the daily test of applying theory to practice, causes the majority of the professorial population to decline a resident coordinator's position.

It takes a certain kind of person to be a resident off-campus coordinator. He must believe in the wedding of public school environments, teacher practitioners, and the university resources in teacher education. He must be willing to pursue his academic scholarship through independent reading and utilization of all libraries—not just the university library—and he must carefully organize his time and dialogue with others. Attendance at campus faculty meetings, exchange of papers, frequent phone calls, letters, and inter-visitation help to maintain vital communication lines. Extensive automobile travel (10,000 miles per year) can become annoying, time consuming, and costly, but a generous amount of autonomy can diminish this detraction. However, one does not have to sacrifice all opportunities to do research, write books, teach, or gain administrative experience while serving in the position of off-campus coordinator.

The nature of the public school-university teacher education partnership must be clearly and cooperatively defined. The resident coordinator must have the authority to act for the university in the resident center. There is nothing more irritating than decision delays about operational matters because the home office, 100 miles away, does not have situational information or recognition of local priorities. Few persons will be motivated to become off-campus coordinators unless they possess a degree of autonomy in coordinating their assigned centers. The loneliness of the station is only compensated for by the latitude of the authority and the realism of the society.

Cooperative Center Development:

If all parties plan together, there is little need for expedient programing. Haphazard center development only leads to early disillusionment with a partnership. The university must ascertain its future enrollment, the student teaching stations needed, the personnel for adequate supervision, and the budget necessary for proper long term support. Then, by invitation or on its own initiative, it must develop a dialogue with public school administrators and teacher practitioners concerning the nature of student teaching and internship programs. Specifically, the university must provide the partnership with: (a) orientation to teacher education for the school board, administration, teachers, students, and parents; (b) support in the selection and preparation of supervising teachers; (c) counsel in developing guidelines for candidate assignment, supervision, and evaluation; and (d) cooperative opportunities to design, modify, and evaluate the program. Neglect—incidental or deliberate—of any of the above actions by the university should mandate its remaining in the campus community.

Communication is an important factor in the success or failure of the program. The university coordinator must be visible, accessible, and willing to talk with supervising teachers, principals, and student teachers as needed. Those difficult student teaching candidates must receive the attention necessary in order for decisions about certification to be reached with maximum evidence and dialogue.

Care must be taken by the coordinator to promise only those services which can be delivered to supervisors or principals. One man representing a university can soon promise every waking minute unless caution and organization exist. In time, services initially required of the university coordinator become skills of the corps of supervising teachers and principals. Communication lines must be maintained too. Frequently I am chided by old colleagues that I am becoming inaccessible. Attention to the dialogue is a continuous requirement.

The student teaching centers were not established to ease the burdens of student teachers, but rather to identify the best realistic laboratories in which to practice initial teaching behavior. Problems of housing and transportation for student teachers have never dictated the objectives of the center program. Teacher education can not be considered as an experience of convenience and also claim recognition for its professional characteristics. To be sure, students have problems; but understanding supervisors and patient, resourceful principals have joined the coordinator in helping hundreds of teacher candidates to begin their careers in a mature manner.

School District Centered Issues:

The Michigan State University—Macomb Teacher Education Center, which I helped create along with several score public school personnel, has operated for seven years. Student teaching was a relatively small favor performed by the eleven school districts for the metropolitan universities. In 1959, a regional group including a community college banded together and invited Michigan State University, 100 miles distant, to establish teacher education programs in Macomb County, a region adjacent to the northeast city limits of Detroit.

At first, cooperating school districts regarded student teaching as easy teacher recruitment. Many of the districts were confronted with mushrooming populations, extensive school building construction, repetitious millage and bonding campaigns, and continual in-service programs for new teachers. Much of the initial population surge has passed, but teacher education needs continue. An adjunct growth dimension has occurred through the hundreds of student teaching experiences:

school district administrators and countless supervising teachers continue to relate their appreciation of the personal professional growth resulting from teacher education responsibilities.

In the beginning, universities were regarded as producers; the school districts, the consumers. Through cooperative program design, implementation, and evaluation, a growing appreciation of the continuum in teacher education has developed.

Teachers and administrators are becoming more aware of the continuous problem of teacher recruitment, preparation, and re-skilling necessary to sustain a competent faculty. Teacher turnover, or departures from the teaching career field, frequently indicate more than a disproportionate number of women in teaching. Concerned educators are carefully recording the reasons for the teacher dropouts. Low visibility, inadequate rewards, and lack of interest in and recognition of their work by superiors are reasons heard. Too many classroom teachers fail to discover the excitement in teaching; isolation in self-contained rooms contributes to the weakness in professional dialogue. The work of supervising teachers, intern consultants, and building principals involved in student teaching and internship has revitalized the faculties in several buildings. Teacher education has a positive impact upon the intensity of professional communications within cooperating school districts, and among inter-district supervising teachers.

A Multi-District Center—Advantages and Disadvantages:

The multi-district student teaching center has been an interesting development over the past seven years. Initially, single city school districts contracted with the university student teaching program; additional enrollments have required new stations which develop from a waiting list of public school districts wishing to become partners in teacher education in established program centers. Program stimulation in the original districts has been healthy. A new alertness exists when several districts blur boundaries and cooperate regionally in teacher education. A cooperative program account has developed. Eleven school districts dissolved individual student teaching accounts and created one regional fund to support student teaching activities. The common fund defrays the costs of supervising teacher seminars, selected program materials, token allowances for supervising teachers, scholarships to national workshops of the Association for Student Teaching, and quarter-end dinners for student teachers and supervisors. This fund is administered by the university coordinators. Financial policy is guided by a committee of cooperative teachers and principals. Monies are invested in teacher education—surpluses do not accumulate.

Multi-district centers offer a greater range of student teaching environments, school communities, and social milieus and provide flexibility in times of stress. Building shortages, financial crises, and personnel gaps can all be accommodated within the framework of the regional center. The curriculum impact in a region can be increased through the cross-pollination which occurs at supervising teacher seminars five times each quarter. The professional vision of isolated teachers or groups of teachers has been enlarged over the seasons. Impatient coordinators must learn how to change provincial thought to universal understanding. The regional approach holds the best promise of overcoming in-grown ideas. It is interesting to note that the several school districts can collectively affect provincialism in the university thought systems.

Building a Program Together:

It takes several years to develop the imaginative abilities of the university and local school personnel. The program participants learn together to develop the skills of supervision and the interesting by-products of student teaching. Neither partner has a monopoly on creativity. The university coordinator, with support from local reference panels of student teachers, supervising teachers, and principals, can ensure innovation and program vitality.

Individual designs for each student teaching experience are encouraged. Variations of team teaching are resulting from new understandings of the student teaching laboratory potential. Case study materials and teacher behavior studies are being conducted by the supervisors and student teachers. Interesting field trips for student teachers are also provided for supervising teachers. Teams of supervising teachers are encouraged to develop supervision materials and to provide special resources to disadvantaged learners in the student teaching settings. Local curriculum development has also been initiated by supervising teachers.

A continuous orientation challenge confronts the university coordinator. Increasing enrollments and multi-institutional utilization of the student teaching area rapidly depletes the corps of skilled supervising teachers. The identification, selection, and preparation of new supervising teachers must receive attention each academic quarter. A course in supervision of student teaching is offered in the region three times each year.

Regional center guidelines can be developed by the supervisors and principals in council with the university coordinator. There is need of specific role accountability. Supervising teachers must be informed of the university program objectives, the nature of supervision, and the means of assessing student teaching performance.

Facilities for a Regional Center:

Most off-campus student teaching coordinators have begun operations from the trunk of their automobiles. Books, records, a coffee urn, and a tape recorder were transported from class to class, district to district. Facilities and space for student teaching seminars were frequently difficult to locate in rapidly growing school districts. A small office, a sympathetic school secretary, and a vacant classroom soon materialize for the resourceful university coordinator. School districts have been most generous in granting phone privileges, typewriters, mimeographing service, heat, light, furniture, and custodial resources as requested. The secret to resources can be found in interesting a building principal in teacher education; a legion of teacher education friends does exist.

During the fifth year, the Macomb Teacher Education Center leased a vacant six room elementary school. This building contains three instructional classrooms, library, offices for a faculty of six, phone service, two secretaries, and the resources to serve 100 teacher candidates each quarter. An operational budget of $45,000 supported 182 candidates in 1965-66. A faculty of six full-time persons and a part-time faculty of others serviced student teaching and internship programs in the 120 square mile area. The off-campus coordinator must become a skilful con-man. Both partners must furnish the material and monetary resources for the center program. The extent of the shared responsibility is determined primarily by the finesse of the university coordinator. As the partnership matures and the participants are willing to risk capital in teacher education, few limits are envisioned.

Issues Regarding Teacher Organizations:

The off-campus coordinator cultivates many friends, perhaps the most helpful of which are the hundreds of dedicated supervising teachers. They face a problem of recognition and accountability for performance. It seems apparent that the university and public schools must soon invite classroom teachers to be the third partner in pre- and post-certification experiences. Teacher practitioners are often the most important influence in teacher education and should, therefore, be party to the planning of programs, selection of candidates, supervision of clinical contacts, and certification of tenure teachers. Currently, we invite, beg, or require classroom teachers to serve as supervising teachers for the new teacher candidate needing laboratory experience prior to initial licensing. In the majority of programs we fail to adequately adjust the person's load, salary, or responsibilities in order to permit that person to truly function in a manner demanded by our claim for professional stature.

It is time to identify, recruit, screen, and groom a highly talented corps of classroom practitioners who can properly demonstrate or reinforce the accepted teacher behaviors for emulation by our new candidates. It is time to recognize this corps by reducing teaching loads and supplementing salary in accordance with their responsibility. If insufficient funds exist to do this properly, then let us exercise mature power to adequately underwrite the cost of preparing teachers in America. It is shameful to compare the expenditure of time, money, and facilities for preparing a doctor to enter practice upon our physical organism and the expenditure for the young people who operate on the mind, attitudes, values, and beliefs of that same organism. We are expecting miracles of young people barely competent to begin professional practice.

Current cooperative agreements between universities, colleges, and public or private elementary and secondary districts in teacher education should be further expanded to include representative classroom practitioners selected by the teacher organizations in each regional area.

Teacher organizations must be helped to assume a greater responsibility for the identification and recruitment of the most talented young people for teaching. They should have a greater share in the standards for training and selection of teacher candidates. Currently, some teacher education programs are involving classroom teachers on referent panels treating aspects of program design and evaluation. Since the current representatives are volunteers, they should be chosen by the representative teacher organizations.

The demand for higher wages and more fringe benefits for beginning teacher practitioners should not be accepted unless it be coupled with more careful screening of candidates, who would possess a more thorough preparation in a framework requiring greater accountability. Differences in teacher behavior and performance must be admitted, and teacher practitioners must discover some acceptable means for assessing adequate, superior, and outstanding instructional behavior. The mere accumulation of credits and years is a sorry set of standards for reward.

The teacher organization can become mature and militant concerning the induction of new teachers. The factors of reduced load, adequate supervision or consultant help, time for professional growth seminars, provision of consistently acceptable teacher practitioner models, and the assurance of a healthy and highly professional working environment should become primary objectives along with adequate wage and fringe benefits.

Teacher organizations can become functionally effective in demanding more imaginative approaches to advanced graduate studies both at the university and within the province of the local or area educational milieu. To continue accepting the same old graduate diet is to submit to a future of mediocrity.

The teacher organization, then, must adopt a new stance in assisting the weak teacher, boosting the inspired, and eliminating the incompetent. Adequate provisions for screening teacher candidates, developing pre-certification teacher education, and properly inducting new teachers and for continuous enriched advanced study have not been refined because the most powerful force in education—the organization of the teacher practitioners—has not been invited to participate. The current partners must extend the invitation to our volunteer classroom supervisors.

Some of the issues and problems incumbent in establishing a student teaching center distant from the university campus have been identified. These problems are a challenge which, through an alliance of friends in the public schools, can reach solution in a maturing partnership.

G. An Assessment of the Administrative Organization of a Cooperative Venture

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Cooperative teaching centers began at Wayne State University in January, 1963, as settings for the practice and study of teaching. Their primary purpose, as outlined in a proposal prepared by E. Brooks Smith, was improvement of the quality of the student teaching experience by:

1. Bringing the school and college more closely together in the cooperative planning and supervision of student teaching
2. Facilitating communication between school and college about expectancies in student teaching
3. Organizing more efficiently for better use of supervisory personnel
4. Building into the program a plan for in-service education of new supervisory personnel at school and college
5. Developing a professional team of school and college personnel for preservice and in-service education of teachers.

A cooperative teaching center consists of fifteen to twenty-five student teaching stations in several elementary schools in proximity to each other. It is a working field unit for preservice and in-service education of teachers; its vital sub-units are a supervision planning committee and a supervision team.

Structure and Responsibilities:

The supervision team consists of a graduate faculty advisor from the college, two or more college supervisors (one of whom serves as the Center coordinator), and twenty-five or fewer supervising teachers. In most of the Centers, the supervision planning committee is the policy-making body. The supervision planning committee usually consists of the graduate faculty advisor, the school advisor, the college supervisors, a consultant from the educational psychology department at the college, and several representatives from the supervising teachers group. The membership of the committee varies from eight to fourteen people, who select their own chairman. The college supervisor who serves as the Center coordinator is responsible for carrying out the decisions of this committee.

The supervision planning committee is responsible for these vital functions:

1. Planning orientation programs for student teachers

2. Planning and leading student teaching seminars
3. Planning the "total school" activities for student teachers
4. Developing variations in the student teaching program for the Center according to the local situation
5. Planning and leading in-service programs for supervising teachers
6. Developing an operational guide for the Center, including a definition of roles of individuals and organizations
7. Assessing the effectiveness of the Center idea and the team approach.

The role definitions which have evolved appear to be highly similar in all of the Centers, and they demonstrate shared responsibility between school and college. Some insight into the balance of responsibility between the two institutions may be gained by comparing the roles specified for the graduate faculty advisor and the school advisor. The school advisor's role has been defined in this manner:

1. He observes the general operation of the Center from the school's point of view.
2. He helps in smoothing out difficult situations on the school side.
3. He takes final responsibility for the school when problems arise which primarily involve the school.
4. He shares teaching and leadership functions in the seminars, orientation programs, and in-service education meetings.
5. He represents the Center at college affairs.

The graduate faculty advisor, who is the college counterpart of the school advisor, has been given these responsibilities:

1. He observes the general operation of the Center from the college point of view, and he is responsible for relating the program of the Center to the total college program.
2. He serves as the liaison person with the college for inviting graduate faculty consultants to participate at appropriate times.
3. He serves as a consultant to the supervision planning committee.
4. He represents the Center at school affairs.

The growth of the Centers followed the guidelines set down in the Smith proposal. First, a Center would gradually develop as college faculty and school personnel saw the possibility in a field situation. Second, each Center would emerge in its own style and with its own unique procedures as the situation and personnel dictated, yet it would keep within the general spirit and framework of the proposal while respecting the particular organization and customs of each school district. Third, an attempt was made to avoid rigidity over a period of time, while establishing a framework which would insure consistency despite a turnover of personnel. Fourth, the Centers were to develop in phases, with realistic time and energy factors taken into consideration. Unrealistic promises were to be avoided.

Organizational Forms:

Three basic types of Center organizational form have evolved after nearly four years of operation. Form I consists of a Center located in one relatively small school district, such as the Southfield Center, which is described in Part 2 of this section. Form II consists of one Center situated in an administrative unit of a very large metropolitan school district, such as the Detroit Region #5 and Region #7 Centers which were also described earlier. Form III exists where several comparatively small school districts cooperate to form one Center. An example of this form is the Northeast Suburban Teaching Center, which operates with five cooperating school districts. In order for a Center of this type to function, a Center Advisory Council was developed which serves as a body for approving and making policy. Policy recommendations from the supervision planning committee must be submitted to the CAC for approval. Membership on the CAC consists of the five cooperating superintendents, the graduate faculty advisor, and the Center coordinator. In addition to approving or rejecting decisions concerning matters which involve both school and college, the CAC passes on recommendations submitted by the supervision planning committee. It also makes school-oriented decisions involving released time for supervising teachers and hiring substitute teachers who replace supervision planning committee members while they attend orientation meetings or seminars.

All cooperative student teaching center activities at Wayne State University have been carried out within the limits of the regular budget. Their future, as their past, is not in any way dependent upon any special grant or fund, either from within or without the University. Neither additions to the college staff nor reorganization of class schedules was necessary. The normal student teaching placement process was followed without any special screening process or plea for volunteers.

Purpose of the Study:

The pupose of the study was to determine whether or not the cooperative teaching centers could exist as viable organizations between the school and the college. These were major questions to be answered: (a) Could individuals from either or both institutions develop loyalties to the Centers? and (b) Was actual involvement of individuals from both institutions evident in the vital activities of the Centers, especially in the areas of decision making, communications, and policy making? In other words, an attempt was made to ascertain whether the school and college could actually be equal partners in that part of teacher education which takes place in the field.

Procedure of the Study:

Three Centers out of the nine now operating in the Detroit area were chosen for the purposes of description and analysis—one from each of the three forms described above. These Centers began operating simultaneously. At the time of the study these Centers had been functioning for three and one-half years.

Two basic categories of information were utilized: (a) documents from the Centers, including minutes of the supervision planning committee meetings, tape recordings of important cooperative decisions made at supervision planning committee meetings, quarterly reports from the Center coordinators, and handbooks containing standard operating procedures and role definitions; and (b) information from two questionnaires which were designed to obtain the perceptions of key cooperating personnel concerning the Centers as viable, cooperative teacher education organizations.

It was assumed, for the purpose of the study, that the Centers were formal organizations, and no attempt was made to prove or disprove this point. Each Center was analyzed as a formal organization according to the criteria devised by Broom and Selznick.[18] These criteria are (a) division of labor, (b) delegation of authority, (c) channeled communications, (d) coordination (administration and policy making), (e) sanctions, and (f) goals. Space limitations preclude a detailed presentation and analysis of all pertinent data here, but examples will be given from each category.

Two questionnaires were used to obtain the perceptions of cooperating personnel concerning the Center as a functional, cooperative teacher education organization. A total of seventy people were tested in three Centers. This represented every supervision planning committee member and nearly all of the experienced supervising teachers. In addition to the two questionnaires, documents concerning the Centers which had been collected over a period of three years were studied and analyzed.

The first questionnaire asked the respondents to list the positive and negative aspects of the cooperative teaching Centers. The respondents were asked to take five minutes to write all of the negative aspects and five minutes to write all of the positive aspects they could think of pertaining to the Center.

Highlights from the Responses:

The two most frequently recurring negative responses were those concerning the element of time and the lack of adequate finances. The time element responses, paradoxically, fell into two categories: "lack of time" and "too much time is required" for cooperative activities. An example of the former is "lack of time to work cooperatively as much as we feel is desirable." A response illustrative of the latter is the feeling on the part of supervising teachers and principals that membership constitutes an extra load on already over-burdened work schedules.

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[18] Broom, Leonard, and Selznick, Philip. *Sociology*. Third edition. New York: Harper & Row, 1963. pp. 220-21.

The "lack of adequate finances" category was in many ways related to the time problem. Several supervising teachers stated that money was needed to provide released time for cooperating public school personnel, while other responses were not as specific. However, it hardly needs to be said here that lack of adequate finances for student teaching is not unique to cooperative teaching centers alone in the field of teacher education. This problem appears to pervade all field experience programs, regardless of their administrative structure. Federal and state aid to student teaching, for example, is an issue of national proportions.

Experience at Wayne State University has shown that, as cooperative activities develop over a period of time, the cooperating public school personnel tend to become quite perceptive of the problems involved in providing a quality student teaching experience. As a result, they expect and demand more services from both the university and the school district—services which, for the most part, can be provided only with additional expenditures of money for such items as more staff members and released time or reduced work loads for cooperating personnel.

Some examples of the most frequently recurring positive responses follow:

"Communication between school and college is excellent and has been the best experienced with the college."

"Students get more extensive school-wide experience."
"Help is given to a student when it is needed."
"The quality of student teacher seminars is excellent."
"Administrators have taken an active role in student teacher training."
"Cooperation extends far beyond the student teaching process."
"Teachers have become involved in the study of the teaching act."
"In-service training of groups and individuals has been excellent."
"It gets college people really involved in schools with school people."
"The flexibility of the operation is good."

The second questionnaire asked specific questions about the Centers. A representative sample of questions and responses of the seventy participants follows:

Question three: How are the important decisions in the Center made?

"At cooperative group meetings"

"At supervision planning committee meetings"
"After careful evaluation of practices."

Question four: To what degree were cooperating personnel involved in the decision making process?

27%—very high degree of involvement
39%—high degree of involvement
17%—adequate degree of involvement
14%—very little involvement
3%—no involvement.

Question eight: Were the schools adequately represented at each level at which decisions are made?

46%—high degree of representation
33%—more than adequate representation
11%—adequate representation
7%—very little representation
3%—no representation.

Question nine: In what teacher preparation activities are you now involved in which you did not participate in prior to the organization of the Center?

"Supervision planning committee activities"
"Student teaching seminars"
"Teams working with a student"
"Teams planning and evaluating a student's experiences"
"Students visiting other classrooms"
"Close cooperation with university personnel"
"Periodic assessments of center practices, materials, and philosophy"
"Group conferences with all other supervising teachers in the building."

Question ten: Do the Center's activities occupy more or less of your time now than you devoted to teacher preparation prior to the development of the Center?

72%—much more time
22%—a little more time
6%—about the same time
0%—less time.

Question twelve: Has the Center resulted in better quality of student teaching?

97%—Yes
3%—No.

Question fourteen: How successful do you think the Center has been in bringing about cooperation between the school and the college?

23%—very high degree of success

54%—high degree of success
23%—fair degree of success
0%—no success.

Question eighteen: Do you think that the Center can continue as a separate and distinct organization with an identity of its own while serving the interests of both the college and the public schools?

88%—Yes
12%—No.

These responses from cooperating personnel demonstrate a significant degree of involvement and commitment to the center concept of teacher education. They also suggest that the Centers are becoming institutions in their own right. Although no attempt has been made to determine the effects of those cooperative activities which transcend student teaching, it is apparent from the responses that considerable attention should be directed toward assessing their effect on supervising teachers and school curriculum practices.

Analysis of Documents:

Perhaps the most informative of the documents which were analyzed are the "guidebooks" or "handbooks" which were cooperatively developed in the centers. The typical guidebook contains these basic elements: a definition of terms, a definition of individual and institutional roles, requirements for the selection of supervising teachers, and policies governing the operation of the Center. The "Standard Operating Procedures" of the Northeast Suburban Teaching Center are reproduced here for the purpose of illustration.

Standard Operating Procedures
Northeast Suburban Teaching Center
Wayne State University

1. Student teachers will be assigned to schools by the joint action of the Center coordinator and a representative of each participating school district.
2. Insofar as it is possible, several students will be assigned to each participating school.
3. Each participating school district, insofar as it is possible, will choose three schools to participate in Center activities each year. In succeeding years, one school will rotate out of the assignment and one will rotate in.
4. An orientation meeting for student teachers will be held each quarter prior to the first day the student teacher enters the classroom. This meeting will ordinarily take place on the first day of each quarter.

5. An orientation meeting for supervising teachers and principals will be held each quarter—preferably before the quarter begins. Released time will be provided for all concerned insofar as it is possible within existing regulations.
6. An evaluation meeting of the Center faculty will be held near the end of each quarter. Released time will be provided for all concerned insofar as it is possible within existing regulations.
7. Student teaching seminars will be planned and executed by the supervision planning committee.
8. The Center advisory council will meet approximately once each quarter. Meetings will be requested by the Center coordinators or the CAC members.
9. Whenever the removal of a student teacher from a student teaching contact must be considered, either the Center coordinator or the cooperating principal will convene an *ad hoc* committee to weigh the factors in evidence. This committee could include the following interested personnel: (a) from the cooperating school district—the supervising teacher, the cooperating principal, and the director of instruction; (b) from the college of education — the Center coordinator, the college supervisor, and the graduate faculty advisor.

The committee will submit a recommendation in writing to the chairman of the department of elementary education, who will make the final decision. It is understood that the cooperating principal may temporarily suspend a student if he feels that the presence of the student teacher in the classroom is detrimental to the welfare of the pupils.

Item three of these procedures developed as the result of a compromise over a problem which arose concerning the placement of student teachers. During the quarter in which the Center began its cooperative activities, sixteen students had been assigned to thirteen schools which were located in five school districts. This diffusion of schools created overwhelming time and coordination problems for the college supervisor. It made sustained communication among supervising teachers virtually impossible. Past placement practices indicated that during the next quarter an entirely different set of schools would be used. The problem was brought to the attention of the supervision planning committee. The committee decided that it would be advantageous to have several students placed in one school simultaneously. The pattern would hopefully continue in the designated cooperating schools in order that a cadre of experienced supervising teachers would be built up as the opportunities for better coordination and communication developed.

Thus it was recommended by the supervision planning committee that one or two schools in each district might be designated as cooperating schools which would be used each year, and that several students be placed in one building during each student teaching period.

This plan was submitted to the Center advisory council for consideration. The superintendents who served as the public school members of the CAC accepted the rationale for multiple placement, but they foresaw several undesirable results developing from the use of the same school year after year. Concern was expressed that professional jealousies might develop between cooperating and non-cooperating schools if one or several schools became known as "the better schools" where student teachers are placed, and the other schools were excluded from participation. The possible development of "student teacher fatigue" on the part of a cooperating staff was also discussed. Fear was expressed that the patrons of a school which had student teachers every quarter for a year or so might complain about their children being "practiced upon" by "untrained" teachers.

A superintendent recommended a compromise plan whereby each year three schools in each district would be designated as cooperating schools. In succeeding years one school would rotate in to the assignment and one would rotate out. Under this arrangement a school would not necessarily have student placements every quarter. This compromise plan was accepted by the school and college representatives and a unanimous decision was reached.

Innovations in the Centers:

Cooperative development of innovative practice is an indication that a new jointly arranged organization is becoming institutionalized.

Three innovations in student teaching practices have been developed in the Centers under study—one in each of them. The first development was the "building approach" which Schacht described earlier in this section. The second innovation was the "team approach" to student teaching, which was designed to improve the quality of the student teaching experience and to serve as a vehicle for in-service education of an entire school staff. Each staff member in a school was assigned to a four-member student teacher supervision team. Thus a faculty of sixteen teachers would have four teams, each of which would work with one student. A senior member of each team served as its supervisor. The student began in the classroom of the team supervisor but might be transferred or at least spend part of his time in the classroom of one or more of the other team members, as the situation warranted. Each cooperating school agreed to work with this plan for two consecutive quarters. Prior to the arrival of the students, a graduate faculty member from the college worked with the faculty of the cooperating school on methods to analyze the teaching act. Preliminary reports from a study under way indicate that this "team approach" was very successful as a device to prepare and select new supervising teachers.

The third innovation was a teaching internship in the Detroit Public Schools. It consists essentially of two student teacher interns assigned to each of two classrooms. One teacher-director is in charge of the two classrooms and the four student teacher interns. A clinical professor from the college is responsible for working with two teacher-directors and eight interns. Emphasis in this program is on the improvement of instruction. The interns have the opportunity to observe and analyze the teaching of the teacher-director, the clinical professor, their fellow interns, and themselves. Portable videotape recorders will be used for the purposes of self-analysis of performance.

Tentative Conclusions:

Although the study is not complete, these tentative conclusions appear warranted:

1. The cooperative teaching Center is a viable teacher education organization which can exist with an identity of its own between the school and the college and yet still serve the interests of both institutions. Cooperative procedures have been mutually developed and formalized in each of the Centers.
2. Faculty members from the school and the college can develop loyalties to the Center. The willingness of personnel from both institutions to make generous time and energy commitments to the development of the Centers, and their perceptions of their Centers as effective teacher education organizations, suggests that loyalties do exist and are a crucial factor in cooperative teacher education. Analysis of the documents collected shows several incidents in which the Center leaders made joint decisions where the interests of the home institution were subordinated to the interests of the Center.
3. In the Center, the school and the college have become equal partners in the teacher education process. They have developed a genuine partnership.

Continued analysis and refinement of cooperative working relationships in the Centers is needed. Channels of communication between the school and college have been established and must not only be kept open but expanded. Demands made by cooperative personnel for qualitative and quantitative improvements in student teaching must be met with the necessary resources from the school and the college.

SECTION III

Emerging Administrative and Regulatory Developments in Collaborative Enterprises

One is not trading off autonomy or freedom for some amorphous social good, but from joint enterprise there can be gain for each party.

JAMES F. NICKERSON

PART I

Emerging Administrative and Regulatory Developments

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The serious reader cannot fail to be impressed by the weight of effort and thought now being directed to growing partnerships in teacher education. The substance of the 1966 Summer Workshop-Symposium on School-College Relationships, and the interpretive comments of those who have contributed to this volume, indicate the changes in both the management and substance of teacher preparation which are being forced by the weight of manpower needs and a growing willingness to admit the inadequacy of many of our traditional schemes for phasing the teacher-to-be into his profession. Reed points out that the emergence of teacher education as a high priority concern has grown from a belated recognition that the work of the teacher is changing substantially; that the complexity of his task is increasing markedly in terms of content, structure of substance, new media, and the increasing potential for realization of individualized instruction.

Optimists and Pessimists

In the pages of this report one finds a storehouse of suggestion and innovation offered from the vantage of the differing partners concerned with teacher education. Each party with varying conviction calls for collaboration, cooperation, joint planning, development of consensus, and welding of interprofessional relationships into a workable scheme for decision and action. From this coalition of effort, the optimist sees a coherent whole emerging for all of teacher education through cooperative efforts of all arms of the profession. The pessimist sees loss of autonomy for the institutions and agencies involved, greater rigidity of program, the danger of divided responsibility, achievement of consensus only on the lowest of levels, and probable bureaucratic engulfment. His comments tend to reveal substantial distrust and fear. As yet, the pessimists appear to predominate. For example, Miller reports that while the "proposals for action" developed in the Pennsylvania Student Teaching Project met overwhelmingly favorable reaction throughout the state, very few of the proposals in the area of cooperation among higher institutions, public schools, and the state were strongly accepted. In other reports of programs, cooperation is pledged only if the college keeps the major responsibility and authority for a program, or contrarily if the public school, the state department, or the "profession" exercises major control.

Hetenyi offers excellent insights into the psycho-political factors and realities of joint enterprise. He deals with the political problem of managing the power components and sees the emerging cooperative ventures of schools, colleges, state departments, and other elements of the profession as a political problem *par excellence*.

However, one can sense in these reports, plans, exhortations, and analyses some lack in precision of procedure, of responsibilities, and of role definitions. One knows intuitively that development lies in the directions suggested in this volume; yet, as a realist, he wishes for more clearly defined touchstones to guide him as he moves into the no-man's-land of interinstitutional effort in teacher preparation. The following pages contain an attempt to assess a number of the factors and conditions to be dealt with as the profession takes these next steps toward maturity.

Dealing with Autonomies

Reduced to simplest terms, these reports call for what are now relatively isolated and autonomous agencies or institutions (college, school, government agency, professional association) to find ways to develop together working policies and procedures which will guide each party in collaborative effort in teacher education. For such an effort, policies and plans need to become operational. Job assignments need to be clear and capable of implementation. Checks and balances are necessary at several levels in the working structure. Evaluation of effectiveness of individual, of agency, or of the total interinstitutional effort must be possible. We seem to have done reasonably well in these matters within our separate institutions and organizations by virtue of our relatively long history and established pattern, but we have little tradition to guide us in this new multidimensional effort.

Involved in such effort is the need for recognition of the autonomy of each institution and the meaning of "joint" planning. True collaboration is more than the simple purchase of services. There is need for encouraging dual, triple, or even quadruple approaches, and for continuing constructive dialogue. In the terms suggested by Hetenyi, there is need to recognize the special objectives sought by individual parties to the enterprise, as well as the more idealistic objectives which support optimum field experience leading to readiness for entry into the profession. Unfortunately, in most of the programs thus far developed, only the broadly stated purposes are well developed. Many of the day-to-day operational matters of joint efforts tend to be listed in ambiguity, overlapping concerns, inefficiency, and unnecessary effort.

Again drawing from Hetenyi's analysis, the gain from joint effort is not made at the expense of another partner. One is not trading off autonomy or freedom for some amorphous social good, but from joint enterprise there can and must be gain for each party. It is analogous to emerging economic theory which points out that we are moving away from an assumption of a fixed size of economic pie to be divided in some mandatory manner among men to reduce the great differences between the haves and the have-nots. Instead, recent theory indicates that an affluent society such as ours can be successfully regulated by management of tax rates, credit, and government spending and deficit. It holds that the costs of improving schools, rebuilding slums, and reducing poverty can be covered by calculated increases in the national output of wealth. According to this line of thought, the planned adjustment of each of the major segments of the economy can increase the health of the entire economy without sacrifice to any of its parts.

Differences in the Autonomous Structures of Involved Institutions

There are significant differences in the traditions and practices of colleges, schools, state agencies, or professional associations which affect their role and performance in any joint effort. *American colleges* have developed within a tradition of substantial autonomy for the individual professor as a scholarly entrepreneur. A college faculty functions more as a collection of peers than as a hierarchy of men and officers. College administrative practices and decisions, therefore, lean heavily on faculty participation and consensus. Substantial power for decision is vested in the faculty, in departments and schools, and in faculty committees. There is a community of authority among regents, administration, and members of the faculty.

Such a tradition, however, is not without its disadvantages. This spreading of authority within the college structure renders decision making difficult and tedious. The mounting load of internal decision making needed to operate the modern college or university is already overwhelming conventional systems of college governance. The added burden of decision making relating to joint effort among institutions and the strong tradition of argument and dissent in college faculties are factors of consequence as we develop our joint efforts.

Substantially less decision making power and influence has been vested in *elementary and secondary school faculties*. The management structure of these schools is much more hierarchical in nature. Departmental or divisional structure is extremely limited. Administrative controls, including budget responsibility, are heavily centered in the office of the principal and superintendent and in certain staff offices.

Obviously, such contrasts in tradition and structure pose peculiar problems in joint planning and joint effort. Representation in policy councils and administrative assignments will need to be drawn with due regard for these factors.

State departments and federal agencies offer another contrast in structure and tradition. Governmental agencies exhibit a well developed hierarchy of authority from employees through section and division heads, assistant commissioners, commissioners, and so on. Employees are often under civil service, a factor which often weakens an employee's identification with the programs or section he serves. It can be pointed out that these agencies and their employees are rarely involved "where the action is." There is a constant danger that departmental decisions are shaped more by administrative or regulatory convenience than direct concern for vitality of performance in the field.

Originally, state agencies were established as regulatory agencies oriented to enforcing minimum standards. However, their role is changing. The recent major entry of the federal government into the school effort has sharply changed the professional stature of state departments. The tradition of minimizing government control of the substance of education suggests that government agencies, both state and federal, will continue to exercise their influence through effective use of advisory committees and consultants, expanded services to the practicing professionals, and legal affirmation of decisions rendered by professional consultative and advisory agencies. State departments and federal agencies are clearly integral in the joint effort, but their roles will differ sharply from other collaborators.

Professional associations are more difficult to characterize than the other parties to the joint effort. Important though these agencies are because of their voluntary and "extracurricular" nature, they often have difficulty in achieving consensus, in delegating responsibility and authority, and in verifying change in position. Historically, most professional associations have been heavily oriented to faculty welfare. However, in recent years, organizations such as NCTEPS, AST, and AACTE have achieved major status as voices of the profession. It should also be noted that, by their nature and purpose, professional associations are not a party to implementation of policy. Their role lies in the development and refinement of policy and procedure and in the external evaluation of performance and progress.

It is to be expected that the contrasts in membership, structure, and orientation described above will be reflected in the role assumed by each of the groups or by their representatives. Each agency (school, college, government agency, or professional association) should bring to the partnership its own uniqueness, its own particular talent. At the same time, each should willingly delegate other functions as appropriate to the remaining members of the alliance.

Problems of Governance

Governance of a complex effort logically falls into two functions—policy development and policy implementation. Administrative theory and practice firmly support as much separation of these twin roles as possible. Though total separation is never fully possible, the two roles need to remain distinct. Failure to observe the distinction is the root of much distrust and tension. The plans and suggestions contained in this volume are most useful in pointing the way to collaboration in establishing policy and procedure to cover joint effort, but it seems fair to point out that the details of administrative implementation and clear assignment of day-to-day management are much less clear. It is predictable that schools, colleges, government agencies, and professional associations will be deeply involved in determining policy and general procedures. It is equally clear that representatives of the schools and colleges will carry the major responsibility for the administration and supervision of performance within the framework of policy as determined.

The nature of delegation of responsibility and authority is not well understood by most citizens or professionals. Most tensions and conflict arise because of misunderstanding of respective roles. A lay board representing the public concern sets the broad policies and mission which govern the school, the colleges, or the state department of education. Of necessity, however, the lay board must make substantial delegation of initiative and responsibility to the professional to *recommend* details of policy, curriculum, and procedure, or even a change in mission. These recommendations become fact only through confirming action of the board. But once recommendations have been formalized by board action, the board delegates further responsibility and authority to its professional agents (faculty and administration) to carry out the program and to recommend changes or extension as conditions warrant.

Delegation of power in this manner does not mean that a board has abdicated its legal authority or responsibility. It has delegated its authority for policy development and for implementation of policy or regulation subject to "reserved control." It can recall its delegated authority at any time in case of abuse or poor performance. In a similar manner, institutions which are party to a joint effort delegate authority to their representatives to hammer out policy and plan, and subsequently to administer and teach in such programs.

Transformation of Policies into Actions

Policies must be transformed into working schemes. To implement policy assumes a plan of work, accepted job assignments and appropriate deployment of staff, and allocation of necessary funds. This latter task normally falls to an administrative force in consultation with faculty members concerned. Once this has been formalized, the task of administrator and teacher (or professor) is sharply differentiated. The supervising teacher or college supervisor has clearly defined functions to instruct, to counsel, and to evaluate the substance of the teaching experience. The administrator, whether from school or college, has responsibility to set in motion the working plan through assignment of staff and facilities sufficient to the task. In addition, it is a further responsibility of the administrator to supervise implementation of the operation and to evaluate staff performance in terms of quality of effort and conformity with established policy.

Agreements on Roles

Among other important considerations in shaping programs and assignments is the development of agreement on the role of each institution, staff member, and official. Role grows logically from the nature of the institution, its potential contribution, and its limitations. For example, earlier in this analysis it was pointed out that the professional association has a firm role in shaping policy and plan, but a limited role in implementation. The college may retain major responsibility for determining the form and substance of student teaching, yet the school classroom which serves as the professional teaching laboratory remains the major responsibility of the local supervising teacher. A state department may continue a hands-off policy relative to substance of policy, yet it assumes major responsibility for formalizing policies and overall supervision of all programs within a state. Similarly, state departments have a supervisory role to determine whether performance is consistent with statute or regulations which govern the expenditure of state or federal monies.

Local Decision Making

Another concern is the importance of keeping decision making as close as possible to the scene of action. Allowing layers of bureaucracy to develop does little to enhance final performance. Performance in student teaching rests in the teaching classroom and squarely on the shoulders of the college supervisor and supervising teacher. No supervisory board, bureau, or even administrator can do the work of these on-the-scene teachers. They only enhance or hinder according to their insight into the purpose of their individual assignments. Similarly, spreading responsibility equally among all parties for matters of performance or administration can be highly impractical. To assert that parties must be co-equal in any joint operation refers only to defining direction and plan. Parties become markedly unequal or dissimilar in responsibility and authority in the implementation phase. Joint policy setting bodies must clearly delegate executive responsibilities to appropriate school and college personnel.

Balancing of Forces

Another concern is one expressed by some of the conference presenters, notably Perkins. The concern is for the establishment of form and structure sufficient to provide continuity of the joint project to enable it to weather changes in personnel, inasmuch as many programs collapse and fail when the drive and enthusiasm of a key individual is lost to the project. A related reason for firm structure is that it serves as a balance of forces. It can be a device to contain a too powerful single partner (e.g., a college supervisor, a principal, etc.), to draw from Hetenyi's analysis.

Elsewhere, it is inferred that lines of authority and responsibility need to be clearly developed, for when policy and procedure are vague, administrative officers must improvise and act beyond established policy, thereby increasing tensions and opportunities for abuse of power.

In the final analysis, structure, organization, policies, and procedures must be weighed in terms of final performance. The focus of operational concern and of performance is in the classroom where student teaching takes place. Attention needs to be on the working conditions, the support, and the autonomy of the college supervisor and the supervising teacher. There must be concern for the integration of the insight of the college supervisor, whose concern is with the improvement of learning and teaching, with that of the classroom teacher, who functions "where the action is." Consultative and administrative policy and efforts must serve to promote communication and interaction among the parties. It should be stressed that enthusiasm in the common enterprise is proportionate to the sense of ownership a member has in it by virtue of his sharing in the decisions which shaped it or which govern it in its operation.

Once these conditions are met, a logical design for action must follow. It is here that parties to the common effort assume unequal and differentiated roles. It is here that tensions can be most severe. It is this aspect of joint effort that deserves our extra effort as we take the next steps toward professional maturity.

PART II

State and Federal Support for Student Teaching

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Conant's book *The Education of American Teachers* was the first widely read publication to make a major point of the need for radically increased financial support for the operation of student teaching as a responsibility of the state. This publication in 1963, and a variety of other influences, have sharply increased the amount of discussion, study, and effort toward action at both the state and federal levels. Concrete results of this attention are discouragingly small, even though the prospects in the years ahead appear somewhat brighter.

Theoretical Considerations

Most student teaching is now conducted in public schools, and there is increasing recognition of the problem of operating a portion of the professional curriculum of the colleges in an entirely separate set of institutions—the public schools. From the standpoint of responsibility for both the quality of the program and financial support, the old saying applies very well: "What's everybody's business becomes nobody's business." New patterns are being explored, but the common dual approach seems certain to continue in most institutions for many years, and there is little hope for rapid improvement with the present and prospective financing. Graduates in teacher education are certified by the state to teach in schools controlled by the state, so that the argument of state responsibility seems very appropriate.

Teachers cross state lines in large numbers and are now thought of as a major national resource, so that federal support is much easier to justify than it might have been a generation or two ago. But the practical consideration of quality is still very pertinent: How can the teaching profession get adequate support for the direct experiences of teacher education to provide the competence needed by today's teachers to meet the strenuous challenges they face?

State Support

In 1950, Georgia began the first—and still the only—program of direct state support to supervising teachers, paid on a sliding scale based on levels of training and experience, but the payments have never been adequate to produce the desired program. California, since 1952, has subsidized school systems for their teacher education service, but without strings tied to the use of the funds. In 1963, West Virginia passed the first comprehensive enabling act formally giving the state both authority and responsibility for the quality and the support of the student teaching program, but the legislature has not appropriated the funds to implement the act.

With a Ford Foundation grant, Oregon developed a state-wide program for preparation of staff for their several teacher education functions and for an exploration of a variety of approaches to school-college relations. However, the request for a state appropriation to continue major aspects of this program was defeated. Also, proposals in 1965 for major state plans for financing student teaching were defeated in Texas and North Carolina. Needs and proposals have been studied and even projected in many other states, but so far as I know there are no other states which have enacted appropriations for the direct support of the operation of student teaching or have had bills considered in their legislatures for this purpose. The fact that some of these defeats were by very narrow margins, and that many more states are presently studying the problem, would suggest that more state legislations and appropriations will be enacted in the years immediately ahead, but realists would caution against undue optimism.

Federal Legislation

Proposals: Annually from 1962 through 1965, bills were submitted to Congress proposing some federal appropriations for the improvement of student teaching. The amounts were usually rather small, and the proposed programs were not too sharply drawn. Thus far, no federal appropriation has been made to support the operation of the student teaching program—which is the really critical need, because the evidence is clear that, in this period of rising college enrollments, other sources of support are not likely to provide adequate resources to develop and maintain high quality programs.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Title V: Only Title V of this comprehensive legislation mentions the laboratory aspects of teacher education directly, and this portion of the Act was designed to strengthen state departments of education, with the federal funds for all purposes of the Title going through these agencies. Among the activities written into this Title are provisions for studies, planning, pilot programs, pilot training projects, and dissemination of findings. The Act specifically mentions the area of teacher education and the school-college relations necessary to provide experiences for prospective teachers.

Titles I, II, and III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act: The major emphasis of the Act, of course, is to provide support for expanded educational opportunities for children of low income families; student teaching is not mentioned. Within the programs supported by these Titles there is a vast array of desirable field laboratory experiences for teachers and prospective teachers, plus opportunities for training and research. Imaginative and alert teacher educators should find many opportunities in the titles of this Act to expand and improve programs of direct experiences for prospective and in-service teachers.

Higher Education Act of 1965 and the Expanded Provisions of the NDEA: These acts do not spell out in detail the professional content which shall be included in the workshops and fellowships, but teacher education concerns can be included and have been made a part of the proposals and curricula of some. Much more could be done through such institutes to raise the competence of these experienced teachers in directing student teachers. The provisions of the Higher Education Act clearly appear to permit a university to propose a fellowship program for preparing college staff to work in student teaching, provided the programs are degree programs of less than Ph.D. level.

Research: Very small amounts of money have been requested and approved for research in student teaching, and the expansion of the cooperative research funds under Title IV of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act has not been in such a pattern that any considerable change seems likely to result. Team research involving multidisciplinary staff and long-range, longitudinal projects will be required before research results of comprehensive significance in this field are produced. To get this accomplished will require many seed projects and numerous very large grants.

Much of the federal research support is now going into two types of centers: first, large research centers at selected universities restricted to one or two major education concerns; and second, the regional research and development laboratories. The University of Texas has the research center designated in the area of teacher education and student teaching, while one or two of the others may very well direct some of their efforts within the broad scope of student teaching and related experiences. On the other hand, the regional laboratories are designed as large cooperative arrangements for attack upon local problems which are identified by the various school systems, universities, and other agencies involved. Assuredly, the emphases will vary greatly in these regional centers around the country, but teacher educators should clearly recognize that research and development projects in teacher education are not likely to be included in the programs of these centers unless the educators work vigorously at sharpening the focus on the problems and promoting attention to this vital area.

Future Prospects

Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act: The appropriation became available so late in the 1966 fiscal year that many states had not yet developed much of a program in the teacher education area. Fiscal 1967 seems likely to produce a much greater number and variety of state projects under Title V related to student teaching. Already, by way of illustration, New Jersey has embarked upon a program of having colleges provide beginning teachers now on emergency certification and without credit in student teaching, with a supervised teaching course to strengthen their competence. Pennsylvania has conducted a series of state conferences and is in the process of devising a state program, while North Carolina has held a state conference to move the state plan closer to implementation.

A number of people in positions of great responsibility and with opportunity to judge the prospects for legislative changes predict that any federal aid for the operation of student teaching will be appropriated in some revision of Title V—but only if and when the need and the value of such support has been clearly demonstrated. Non-educational factors may also play a very large part in decisions of this type, including the possibility of further escalation of the manpower needs in Viet Nam and the present pressures for inflation.

Use of the Multimedia in Improving Student Teaching and Related Experiences:

In some quarters there is much talk of reducing the cost of student teaching and other experiences by varied uses of the new media. Recorded classroom episodes on videotape, sound film, or kinescopes may very well be used to substitute for some of the required observation, and, in fact, may expand and improve it greatly. But, as yet, no evidence has been produced to indicate that simulated experiences will substitute satisfactorily, although this approach probably has possibilities yet to be developed. Studio-teaching and micro-teaching seem certain to contribute a great deal to teacher education; however, there seems no evidence to support the notion that student teaching, internships, or residencies should be reduced. In fact, as the colleges respond to the demands to produce teachers to meet the challenges of the inner city schools, there is much reason to believe that expanded experiences will be needed and can be made effective.

Summary

Teacher educators are faced with at least three major challenges in this area of support for student teaching. First, they must get into the political arena and find some way to obtain adequate financial support for this all-important phase of teacher education. Second, a tremendous amount of spade work is needed, and quickly. New approaches must be tried, old and new ones tested, pilot programs designed and explored, research expanded and supported, all at the same time—but also all at the same time, the leaders in this field must project their best thinking into a rationale for our programs and must obtain the attention and support of the major segments of the teaching profession and the bodies which appropriate funds. Third, as a concomitant of the other two, the concepts and knowledge from the related disciplines need to be refined and adapted so that the quality of this intensely personal, as well as professional, experience can be provided at a much higher level of effectiveness than has been customary in the past.

PART III

The Federal Government and Teacher Education

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Wherever you look these days, you find some evidence that the education of teachers has high priority on just about everybody's list. It has high priority with teachers themselves—a fact the presence of so many at the Workshop attests to. It has high priority with parents, and with all other laymen who care about the schools—and what responsible layman doesn't? It has high priority with the men and women who teach in colleges and universities. And it also has high priority with governors and legislators.

We are inclined, I think, both within and without the profession, to take for granted this swelling tide of interest in the education of teachers. Of *course,* we are inclined to say, we need more teachers; we need to keep the ranks filled with qualified people. And we are as aware as we have always been that the quality of the teacher—a phrase we use vaguely to cover many things, including the teacher's education—is the key to the quality of our whole educational endeavor. But if you were to ask me for one reason to explain the great emphasis—the questioning, analytical, often agonizing appraisal—that we are giving to teacher education today, I would have to say that I think there is still another reason. It is a reason so overpowering that, when we combine it with our old and continuing reasons for attending to the education of teachers, it leaves us no room for excuses or delays. The reason is this: the work of the teacher is *changing*. And teachers should change with it. They have new problems to solve, new points of view to get, new thoughts to think, new ways to learn, and new tools to handle.

Changing Work of the Teacher

Do not misunderstand me. The work of the teacher is changing only in that it is becoming more and more the serious and difficult fine art that wise men have always said it is. The work of the teacher is changing because knowledge in all fields is changing; and teachers, like engineers and physicians and astronomers, will have to race to keep up with the times. It is changing because suddenly and loudly and firmly society is demanding that teachers and schools live up to the ideals they have always professed but not always practiced: the ideal of meeting every child where he is; the ideal of finding in him the unique worth that makes him a precious creature, deserving to be cherished; the ideal of giving him not only proficiency of mind and hand, but also an understanding heart to help him on his way with his fellows; the ideal of building into his mind an unquenchable desire to go on learning for himself and on his own; the ideal, in short, of universal education. Many of the things we have always said it would be nice for the schools to do for children, wonderful to do, have suddenly become things urgently necessary to do, and teachers, all teachers, should learn how to do them.

Interest of the Federal Government in Teacher Education

With the need for teacher-education programs so great, and the interest in education so high and so widespread, it is no wonder that the federal government has, in the last few years, begun to look about for ways in which to help meet that need. The federal government is not a pioneer in this matter; in fact, the federal government is not generally inclined to be the first to experiment with ideas in education. Any fires it tends are quite likely to have been set by sparks from other fires: fires set along the frontier of new ideas in local schools across the land, in colleges and universities, in cultural centers and research laboratories, and in state departments of education. In matters affecting education the federal government waits, in effect, for a certain amount of consensus; then, when it is ready to extend a helping hand, it can do so in an atmosphere of receptivity. Then it finds, throughout the nation, a readiness to accept what the federal hand offers. What that hand offers is generally an inducement to action—inducement in the form of money.

Before the federal government offered any assistance for teacher education programs—other than the money which for years it made available under the Smith-Hughes Act and subsequent acts for the upgrading of instruction in vocational skills—it waited to hear what the public, the educators in particular, considered most necessary. In 1958, mostly on the profession's advice, the Congress appropriated money for institutes for school counselors and for teachers of modern foreign languages; just as some time earlier, also on the profession's advice, it had provided for institutes for teachers of science and mathematics. The profession's advice weighed heavily in another decision, also in 1958, to provide for long-term low interest loans to college students—preferably, at first, to students who intended to teach.

National Defense Education Act:

I am referring, of course, to the National Defense Education Act. I remember well the weight that the professional educator's voice carried in the hearings on that bill. It was his voice that also strongly supported two other features of that act which, in the years since, either directly or indirectly, have increased the quality and number of teacher education programs around the country. One was the strengthening of supervisory staff in four fields in state departments of education: in science, mathematics, modern foreign languages, and the counseling and guidance of pupils. The other was the providing of graduate fellowships for would-be college teachers.

The National Defense Education Act was only the beginning. Since then, Congress has offered other assistance; and it seems to me that the pace of the federal government's interest in teacher education has quickened with each passing year. The Congress has repeatedly amended the National Defense Education Act, each time in the direction of more aid for teacher education. Now, for example, there are institutes for many more purposes than the original act specified. Now there are also institutes to improve the teaching of history, geography, reading, English, and economics; as well as special institutes for school librarians, educational media specialists, and teachers of disadvantaged children. There are now, under the National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities Act of 1965, institutes in the arts and humanities. There is also money for supervisory staffs in state departments of education in all these subject areas.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act:

In addition, we now have the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which has implications for teacher education in at least four of its titles. We have the Higher Education Act of 1965, which not only brought forward the idea of a Teacher Corps, but also created two programs of fellowships for teachers: one for teachers with experience and the other for the inexperienced. We also have, under Public Law 85-926, a program of grants to encourage the development of a corps of teachers specially trained to work with handicapped children.

Role of the Profession in Relation to the Federal Acts

Now and then one hears a voice calling out in protest that these several federal programs for teacher education are isolated, unrelated programs, each one designed to meet a particular need; and that the threads, the fabric, the unifying web that should tie these programs together and make them reinforce each other were not provided by the government that brought them into being.

To some extent this is true; and to the extent that it is true there seems to be a good reason for it. It is a reason which the teaching profession should be the first to acclaim. Let me remind you that in a free society education is the people's responsibility. The people decide what they want to educate their children *for;* and they provide the money and the moral support. But after they have done that, the people delegate responsibility: to lay school boards they delegate responsibility to determine school policies; and to professional educators they delegate responsibility for determining the subject matter to be taught, the teaching methods to be used, and the standards to be met—all in the light of the objectives stated by the school board. To professional educators also, the people certainly leave all the business of professional interrelationships. In our system of things, educators have been granted—as they should be granted if they are indeed members of a true profession—a good deal of professional autonomy. In the elementary and secondary schools they do not yet have so much of this autonomy as physicians and attorneys have, but they have a good deal nonetheless, and they are getting increasingly more as they demonstrate their ability and enthusiasm for taking on additional responsibility.

What I am leading to is that the federal government has shown commendable restraint, in its programs for teacher education, in this whole matter of interprofessional relationships. Take, for example, Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965—the Title providing for those innovative centers and services now being established in hundreds of communities under the sponsorship of the public schools. In this Title the Congress specified that local schools wishing to establish such centers and services should apply directly to the U.S. Office of Education. When the Congress so specified, it did not, I am certain, have any intention of weakening the links between those schools and their state departments of education. On the contrary, I am convinced, they consider those links, forged in the main by the profession, as being absolutely essential (Title V of the same Act is evidence of that); and they look to the profession to keep those links strong. After all, the federal government writes its programs for teacher education with its eyes focussed entirely on the needs of children and students. It expects the profession to take care of its own lines of communication. And the profession is doing precisely that.

Cooperative Arrangements Arising From the Federal Legislation

If I can judge by the reports that come to me from many sources, both inside and outside the Office of Education, professional educators have shown themselves to be highly expert in bridging gaps. By the cooperative arrangements they have made among themselves, and among the agencies and institutions they serve and the organizations they belong to, they have outdone themselves.

Let me give you some examples of the coordinating relationships

I have observed in connection with the federal programs for teacher education and with them some idea of the changes they are bringing about and are likely to bring about in the future.

At the University of Minnesota this summer there were three institutes that I select for mention especially because they were for college teachers—the *teachers* of teachers. One of these institutes was for college teachers of English; one for college teachers of geography; and one for college teachers of French, Spanish, and German. At each of these institutes, the emphasis was on how to transmit the subject matter from the mind of the teacher to the mind of the learner; and each teacher was required to try to look out upon his subject not with his own eyes but with the eyes of a student. These college teachers are, many of them, academicians; and for many of them the institutes opened windows on a world of teaching that they had not looked on for a long while, and perhaps had not looked on at all *as teachers.* This fall those teachers will go back to their home campuses and take up again their classes for prospective teachers. Think of how many elementary and secondary school classrooms will soon feel the exhilarating effects of their fresh points of view. I assume, of course, that those college teachers all have in their natures that ingredient indispensable to every great teacher—the ingredient which George Herbert Palmer, a great professor at Harvard at the turn of the century, once called "a passion to make scholars." I assume that they have what Dr. Palmer called "the true teacher's natural aptitude for vicariousness."

A New Dialogue Between Institutions and Within Institutions

These three institutes are, to me, symbolic of the new dialogue, the conversation, the close association—perhaps I can even call it the friendship—that has begun between college people and school people in virtually every institute I know anything about. In addition to what these institutes are doing to improve instruction in the elementary and secondary schools—and this was the main idea behind the institutes—they are also having their good and permanent effects in the other direction. Their effects are being felt in college curricula, for instance, and I have firsthand information on that from heads of academic departments. Yes, the heads of academic departments: colleges and universities are sending men to do men's work in these institutions; they are not—and for this we all have reason to be grateful—they are not sending the boys.

The following statement, for example, came from a professor of English, the head of the department, at Western Michigan University: "The Institute," he writes, referring to an institute he directed for high school English teachers, "has already had an impact on the department of English. We have initiated a course in applied linguistics at the graduate level for teachers of high school English; we will revise the teacher education program in the department; we will improve the

Master of Arts in teaching of English program as a result of our experience."

He goes on to say: "It has been a valuable summer for all of us. The institute has contributed very much to our understanding of the needs of the teachers in the schools, as well as our understanding of our responsibilities to our undergraduate and graduate students and to the schools in the community."

Another department head, from the University of North Carolina, writes about the "new respect" which his department now has for the public school teachers. This idea we hear over and over again, from all directions. The academicians are discovering that the elementary and secondary school teachers with whom they associate in the institutes are "really on the ball." An eminent geographer, who is a professor in one of our leading universities, had to be persuaded by one of his graduate students to participate in a geography institute, but he came away from it, as he said, "all fired up." And in a letter to one of the Office of Education administrators of the institute program he wrote of his "delight over the participants" and said he now has a strong interest in directing an institute of his own.

The University-Wide Approach

All signs, in my opinion, point to the fact that institutes for teachers are gaining much ground for the cause of teacher education, and for the professional status of the elementary and secondary school teacher. We seem to be moving closer to what Mr. Conant calls a university-wide or "all-university" approach to the training of teachers. Certainly many schools and departments of a number of prestigious universities are committing substantial proportions of their resources and energies to teacher education programs; and we may soon see the day when an assistant professor of economics can pick up as many points toward promotion by giving a year to a teacher institute as he can by research or publishing a dozen learned pieces. Moreover, the universities are drawing allies to their sides in their teacher education programs: cooperating school systems and communities, state and federal educational agencies, and professional educational associations.

The university-wide approach will get further testing this fall, when 1,004 experienced teachers from elementary and secondary schools enter fifty full-time programs of graduate study in forty-seven colleges and universities. The universities planned the programs and selected the teachers. Some programs are for the academic year 1966-67, almost half require further study during the summer of 1967, and seven continue through the 1967-68 academic year. These programs have been established by what the Office of Education calls "The Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program." They have two purposes: to upgrade the qualifications of elementary and secondary school people and to strengthen teacher education programs. To make each program really have an impact on the institution providing it, the Office of Education required that the institution create a program for a *block* of fellows, something between ten and forty; and to each institution it awarded $2,500 for each fellow. The institution is required to put that money into the program. The fellows themselves get substantial awards, plus allowances for their dependents.

Criterion of Cooperation Required

A clue to the excitement these programs will generate lies in the three criteria each institution is meeting: the program will be innovative, it will pool the resources of the college of education with the resources of other colleges and departments in the university, and the university will draw substantially on the resources of the elementary and secondary schools. Nearly every program will concentrate on a particular subject for a particular grade level—physics for the secondary schools, mathematics for grades four to six, history for grades ten to twelve and so on. But the emphasis on subject matter, although preeminent, will be linked to another emphasis—the emphasis on how to teach it in the classroom.

One of these fifty programs will train the entire faculty for one elementary school. It will open all the resources of the university—in mathematics, the humanities, and the sciences—to twenty-five teachers carefully selected from the elementary schools in the city where the university is located. The group will include a counselor, a librarian, even a principal. Each teacher will gain knowledge in his subject matter, but he and his fellows will spend much time together planning teaching programs. And when the program is over, the group will take over an entire elementary school, giving it a faculty composed of nothing but top-notch, experienced, career teachers, each with a brand-new master's degree and each fresh from a year that steeped him in basic knowledge rather than in the conventional "methods" courses. Then we will all have the pleasure of seeing what a team like that can accomplish.

The Teacher Corps

But what of the teachers at the other end of the scale—the fledgling teachers, the new and untried teachers, who have no resources in experience to draw on? For these, too, the federal government has expressed a concern, though it has done so with the needs of disadvantaged children in mind. I am thinking now of the Teacher Corps, which, though its future is still uncertain, is built on the sound idea that a new teacher should work under close supervision for a year and should have opportunities, meanwhile, in a college or university, to relate his classroom experience to his own formal training.

Cooperative Research

In addition to all these specific programs for teacher education, there is also the federal government's substantial program of cooperative research on the problems of education. When you think of the federal support for teacher education, do not forget its support of research efforts. These efforts are not only throwing light on our long time questions about teacher-pupil relationships, individual differences, styles of learning, and a thousand other things, disproving much of what we once believed, making certain much of what we once doubted. What we are learning through research about the processes of education is helping us to define that body of knowledge which is part of the professional teacher's store—just as much a part of his store as his knowledge of his chosen academic field.

Computerized Service to Education

Research is doing more, however. At the same time that it deepens and defines the body of knowledge belonging to an educator, it is providing the tools and devices that in the end will make it possible for the master teacher to realize his most cherished dream: to teach his pupils one by one. It seems to me providential that both should come at almost one and the same time—the professional knowledge and the aids that make that knowledge usable. At last the teacher will have the data he needs—and time to use them—for getting better acquainted with each pupil, for understanding his problems, for making more than a guess at what his gifts are and what his limitations are, for knowing something of his hopes and dreams.

Through the services of research we are moving fast toward a time when teachers can really teach children, instead of just presenting facts like a page in a book. Louis Bright, our associate commissioner for research, said something to this effect earlier this summer when he spoke before the Joint Economic Committee. He stated:

> A computer can present conventional subject matter very effectively, but there are things it cannot do. It cannot, for example, develop the capability of the student to communicate well with other people. It cannot train the pupil to originate ideas, to present them, and defend them against the criticism of his peers, or to talk confidently before a group. I believe that the fundamental consequence of educational technology is that a teacher should never stand in front of the class presenting material. Rather he should be the leader of a discussion group in which his objective is to get the students to talk and express their ideas. Such an educational system will result in a great deal more interaction among the students and between any individual student and the teacher than is now provided by the conventional classroom in which, to be realistic, only the top five percent and the

> bottom five percent really have any personal attention. Thus one is led to the apparent contradiction that a computerized school will probably result in each student's having a much more personalized experience and much more interaction with others than any student now has.

As Mr. Bright often says, educational research today is pushing us ever closer toward the goal of truly individualized instruction.

New Federal Programs Through the Advice and Cooperation of the Profession

As I look over the several programs specifically intended to boost teacher education, as well as the several other programs likely to change in some way our ideas about what a teacher's education ought to be, I begin to see a coherent whole taking place. Whether this is happening by public intent or by an almost unconscious response to the social and technological changes now sweeping across the world is beside the point. The fact is that the federal government, working as it is with the advice and cooperation of the profession, educational institutions, and agencies of all kinds to find the solution to basic problems in teacher education, is helping us to lay a track to run on; and the outlines of the road ahead are beginning to come clear.

However it bends and turns, that road will unerringly lead to a complex of solutions. It will lead to more careful selection of entrants to the profession, longer periods of preservice training in more broadly based curricula, more thoughtfully supervised induction of the beginner, and rich and varied opportunities throughout a teacher's career for professional growth and intellectual development. The road will rest on a sturdy base of research and experimentation to continually increase the teacher's knowledge, improve his skill, and give him better tools. For all of this, because the national interest demands the maintaining at all times of a corps of highly qualified teachers, we can expect to find the federal government lending a hand. We can expect it to continue to give substantial financial support and to provide a never ending stimulation for doing a never ending job better.

SECTION IV

Foundations for Partnership

PART I

Bases for Cooperative Venturing

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In general, this volume attests to the strong convictions of experienced educators from both schools and colleges regarding the essential need for true partnerships in teacher education if it is to be modified and improved to meet the demands of the times. There is a compelling appeal in the arguments presented.

But the very strength of these arguments and convictions, which are based on a logic born of experience, creates a danger for the unwary. It could lead to an enthusiasm for "the partnership idea" among teacher educators in either schools or colleges which might result in either quickly constructed, simple structures inadequate for the complexities of the tasks to be accomplished—or in lovely, elaborate structures which are irrelevant to the ends sought. In either case, the frustrations which would inevitably follow would probably result in an intensified disjunction between schools and colleges.

To note this possibility is not to suggest that sincere and thoughtful cooperation between school and college personnel is unimportant, or even unessential, to the improvement of teacher education. Rather it is intended to call attention to the overriding importance of the purposes to be served and to the indispensability of substantial foundations for any structures designed to facilitate cooperation among the many individuals concerned with the adequate preparation of educational personnel.

It is the purpose of the articles included in this section of the book to look at some of the factors which must be considered in developing satisfactory bases for effective partnerships in teacher education.

Relationships which will promote the development of a system of teacher education which is "self-renewing" must be built on a foundation which consists in large measure of clear understandings of the important difficulties involved in the development of such relationships.

It is axiomatic in teacher education, as in all things, that simple or irrelevant solutions to complex problems promise nothing. And certainly the problems of improving teacher education for the present and of keeping it susceptible to adaptation for the future are highly complex. A review of the materials in just this section of the present book is enough to confirm this conclusion. Especially pertinent to the difficulties which stem from the social and technological revolution of our times is the chapter by Combs. The difficulties for schools and teachers which they present provide the rationale for his call to closer, more realistic relationships between school and college faculties. Combs focusses on the dehumanizing aspects of the current social milieu and emphasizes the need for teacher education which is "even more student-centered than the programs we are currently advocating for pupils in the public schools."

Many of the difficulties which must be recognized and understood if school-college relationships in teacher education are to be built on firm foundations stem from the fact that educational improvement and change must be viewed and dealt with on at least two levels simultaneously.

Keeping in mind that dichotomies of any kind are apt to be false, it may be noted that many of the problems of schooling may be categorized as immediate and urgent, as fairly specific, and as demanding attention through strategies, or even tactics, appropriate to short-range adaptation or change. School practitioners who are in the midst of the "real world of teaching" most of the time are more likely to identify these problems as crucial than would their college confreres. Briggs and Owen, as school administrators, clearly identify the kinds of things that matter "where the action is—now."

On the other hand, many of the problems of education may be categorized as less immediate and hence, apparently less urgent; as more general, and as requiring resolution through long-range change strategies. These are the problems which tend, or perhaps ought, to preoccupy college personnel who are somewhat, if not completely, detached from the "real" world of the school. LaGrone, Openshaw, and Combs speak more from this orientation, but it should be noted that LaGrone and Openshaw seek to bridge the gap between the theoreticians and the practitioners. The skills and understandings which permit a critical analysis of what goes on in schools and classrooms become important tools for teachers and teacher educators in this approach. LaGrone would provide the prospective teacher with these analytical tools so that he might assess and improve his own work. Openshaw would use these tools to elaborate teaching and provide a more definitive basis for teacher education. In his words, "teacher behavior, or teaching performance skill, is set forth as *the* vantage point for considering the relevance of content in teacher education. . . ." For LaGrone and Openshaw the school and its classrooms become laboratories for the critical analysis of teaching.

Combs presents a sharply contradictory point of view regarding the importance of information about teaching in the improvement of teacher education. He chooses the subjective approach and calls for "seeing the production of teachers as a problem in becoming. . . ." In his view, we need "to shift our emphasis from a direct attack upon behavior which deals only with symptoms, to helping our students explore and discover personal meaning, the primary *causes* of behavior."

No attempt at reconciling and evaluating the relative merits of these different views will be attempted here. The purpose of this introduction is to underline the obstacles to effective relationships among the agencies and personnel concerned with the preparation of teachers which are inherent in the differences in the frames of reference used or in the purposes chosen for attention.

Failure to recognize and deal with these differences openly will result in structures and arrangements for "partnership" in teacher education which are built on foundations of quicksand.

PART II

Reconceptualizing Teaching

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If you observe people, even the very young, nearly all have a concept of teaching. For instance, when our daughter was about four years old, I observed her teaching. First the dog. The dog didn't respond too well, and then one of the neighbor children who responded even less well. But she had a concept of teaching. Many people, including our daughter as she tested her skill on the dog and then on the child, have not critically studied their concept of teaching. As you know, the reformation of concepts is far more difficult than the formation of an original concept, so we are dealing with a very difficult topic in trying to find ways in which we can help people examine their concept of teaching, or to reform their concept of teaching. Yet this is what I am trying to do. I propose to explore with you a way of "looking at" or conceiving teaching-learning situations. I am trying to find an elementary analytical form that we might employ to assist prospective teachers, and possibly experienced teachers, in "thinking about" teaching.

To examine an area, I find the use of simple diagrams helpful. There are some dangers in both simplification and diagramming when you apply this as an analytical approach. But one of the truly significant features of the diagrammatic approach, or, as some people call it, "modeling," is that the model can be incomplete and still serve as a tool for thought. If the original model used for "thinking about" something has missing components, elements, or factors, the diagram will be changed through thought. So, I encourage you to explore this business of diagrams and modeling.

Before I describe the simple instructional system that I would use to help people in conceptualizing teaching, I want to present a little bit about diagrammatic forms. I have been playing with these this last year and I think maybe I have discovered some things that you might find helpful. Then I will set some limits and assumptions for the simple instructional system model.

Diagrammatic Forms

As I have worked with the words that we use to express concepts relative to teaching, I have observed two dominant characteristics. First, many of these words do not have an autonomous character. We use them as though they do, but they do not. Second, close examination reveals that, within their definition, certain words have a directional and often a dimensional overtone or sub-concept.

Let me give some examples of these two ideas. The word "guiding" is frequently used as though it were an autonomous word. It is not. It has a "from-to" directional quality. It also has to have a "what," and a "who" and a "where." You cannot talk just about "guiding" or "directing." If you do, they are incomplete. Using them and other similar words in that manner accounts for some of the fuzzy definitions and concepts now common in the area of teaching and learning.

"Becoming" is a concept we frequently encounter in education. Combs talks about it in his presentation. But "becoming" is not an autonomous word: it has both a directional and a dimensional aspect to it. It is a very complex concept.

After working with words, I began to explore some of the diagrammatic forms that we frequently employ in the development of the structural concepts represented by words. This has been very interesting. I have not identified all of them but I want to discuss briefly a few of the more common directional and dimensional forms.

One of the most common forms is what I call a *linear form*. This model accommodates the "this point on" description. It may also have direction and be used to deal with the "from-to" or cause and effect type notions. We can think of this form as a line; if it has a predetermined directional component, we put an arrow on the end of it. Sometimes the linear form branches to illustrate various alternatives and takes on a tree effect. The continuum is another type of linear form used to represent the "in-between" ideas of selected extremes.

We often employ circular elements in our words. Thus we need a *circular or cyclic representation*. When ideas are at the same general level, the circular design may take at least two forms. One is called the "vicious circle" when there is an accumulative negative effect. In this case we can assign value to either the outer parts of the circle or to the center. In some respects this is similar to a linear representation. The second form of circular representation might be called the "ripple effect." This may happen when we sow a seed or set forth a notion and it flows out in all directions as do ripples when a stone is tossed in a pond.

Another way we may represent things can be called the *polarity form*. Polarities are isolated points within some one spatial dimension. Basically these are "either-or" ideas. The points or polarities cannot be reconciled or "gotten together." If they could, they would take on a linear relationship, probably of the continuum type. I do not use the polarity form very much, because I deal mostly in shades of gray. As I indicated, it is hard to get black and white together without moving to a linear form.

It is important to note that we may take these representations and orient them vertically rather than horizontally. This is how we express levels; sometimes in degrees, sometimes in other types of gradations. Certainly any of our concepts that employ increasing difficulty or complexity take on this vertical aspect, usually moving upward, unless we use the newer way of expressing it: what we are seeking is depth. Then we turn it upside down. It is just personal choice as to how you orient these representations to deal with a particular idea.

To relate interdependent ideas we may use *solid forms*. When the ideas we are working with are too complex for a two-dimensional representation, we must add a third dimension. One of the more famous (and I think very significant) is the cubical model that Gilford employed to illustrate the Structure of Intellect.[1] One far less well known is one I developed for the introductory report of the TEAM Project.[2] Instead of the cubical form it was a cylindrical representation. I thought it was pretty good until B. O. Smith called it "Herb's oil drum." After that I decided it was not communicating too well; at least, it did not help him think about what I thought it was helping me think about.

Diagrams Help In Inter-relating Ideas:

It doesn't really matter how we get at these ideas about teaching but that we *do* get at them. I think that by using the diagrammatic method we can begin to relate concepts that we have not yet related because we have tended to keep them in definition form. Thus they have remained separated and we have had no particular way to pull them together. It is not important whether we use horizontal or vertical representations or cubes, cylinders, circles or spheres, so long as we pursue a way to get the components and elements together. It is essential that we do so because our real problem in teacher education has been our failure to integrate the many concepts that are operative in a teaching-learning situation.

We also must watch the words we use to be sure they have some semblance of real meaning. They must not be merely glib terms, casually used, that really say nothing to a person who is not quite "with" us or that mislead or confuse him. I believe we must become more sensitive to the meaning and use of words in the field of education.

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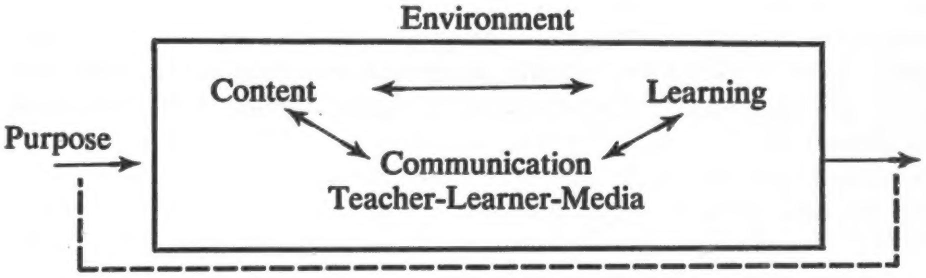
[1] Guilford, J. P. *Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.

[2] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Teacher Education and Media Project. *A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-Service Professional Component of a Program of Teacher Education*. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1964.

Limits and Assumptions

Since we are attempting to prepare teachers for work in organized and institutionalized teaching-learning situations, I use this setting as the boundary for a system. From this, we get the suggestion that there is an *environment*. Within these limits, I assume institutionalized instructional efforts are for some identifiable *purpose* and operational in a unique situation that is extremely complex. The purposes of instruction require some kind of *learning* and since learning has an "of what" and "by whom" characteristic or characteristics, there must be a *domain of knowledge* or a body of content. In addition, organized instruction requires some form of *communication,* and this must involve either persons or devices. Within these limits I consider the major components of the simple instructional system to be *environment, purpose, learning, content,* and *communication.* The teacher, learner, and media are elements of each of the components.



This simple diagram (above) illustrates "environment," and then, without rigid definition, shows that within that environment there is content, learning, and communication. The activating agent is purpose. Without it we don't know much about the nature of content, learning, or communication. The purpose sets forth what is to happen as a result of the interaction of all that is involved. Notice that also within this environment are teacher or teacher substitute, learner, and media.

Now as you think about this you may want to develop a model in which you place the learner at the center. I tried this and didn't have much luck. I wish you well. You may also wish to develop a model where the central point is the teacher. I tried this and was no more successful, so, once again, I wish you well. I tried setting media at the center, too. I will have a little bit to say about media later.

I realize this diagram is in very simplified form, but again let me stress that it is a way to "think about" any teaching-learning situation. These elements and components are inherent in all teaching-learning situations. You may wish that they would go away, or you may ignore them—but they are there. Consequently, they become the significant pieces with which we must deal when we explore conceptualization of teaching.

A Simple Instructional System

Using these components, I have defined the instructional system as "the integration of content, learning, and communication within an environment to seek a purpose." It is a very simple definition and it may be too simplified. I am aware of the dangers of oversimplification, but let me remind you that this is a beginning of a way to think about something, rather than an absolute. And, through thinking about it, we will be able to improve it.

To illustrate this simple system, let me give two examples of teaching-learning situations that I think it will accommodate. I think these are as extreme as any concepts you can have about teaching. First there is Mark Hopkins on one end of the log and the pupil on the other. In this case let us assume that Mark is using the silent language described by Hall.[3] As a second example, consider a situation where the student is at an IBM terminal in Fort Worth, Texas, doing a computer-assisted instructional program on a computer at Poughkeepsie, New York. This actually happened last Easter. In each case there is environment, purpose, learning, content, and communication. I am reasonably sure that the level of content and learning was higher in the first case, but there was certainly greater sophistication in both hardware and software in the second case. In each of the examples the teacher (whether physically present or not), learner, and media have served as determinants of content, learning, communication, purpose, and environment. I will present a little bit more about the elements after discussing these components.

Environment

The teaching-learning environment has been described in several different ways. In one of the older and more common approaches we have employed the words democratic, laissez faire, and autocratic. I would put these concepts in the polarity representational form. I suppose there are times when those of us in administration like to think we are just a little autocratic or that we are mostly democratic. I find, however, that these terms are extremely difficult to fit into a linear representation. They are polar. As I said earlier, I do not find this polarity representation a very effective means of exploring most concepts.

Operationally, I believe the teaching-learning situation may better be conceived within a continuum design, with one extreme in this diagrammatic form designated as static, and the other as dynamic.

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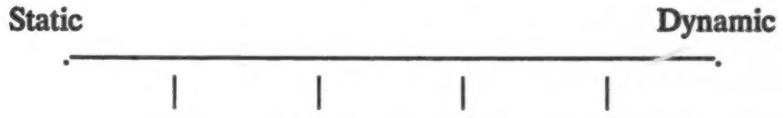
[3] Hall, Edward T. *The Silent Language*. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1959.



The situation can be dominantly static or dominantly dynamic. I think these words may be used in this way. This is, I believe, a useful model for the beginner to use in conceptualizing the teaching-learning environment because the nature of the environment must be altered as content, learning, and communication patterns are changed. This static-dynamic relationship accommodates variation.

I realize the danger of getting this relationship out of phase with the designs for the other components and elements. For example, I think one of the very serious problems in the conceptualization of teaching is that we talk about and hope to develop creativity, yet we try to operate a static environment. Anybody with any knowledge of creativity knows that it cannot really happen in a static environment. This case helps emphasize a significant point. In our conceptualizing about teaching we tend to let the components of the teaching-learning situation get out of balance. This, I think, is where our concept of teaching gets tangled: we try to work from one model in considering one component and another model in dealing with another component. This causes all kinds of trouble in developing an accurate, coherent concept of teaching.

If you wish to move from this very elemental representation and further explore the conceptualization of the environment, I would recommend the more complicated and sophisticated model developed by Getzels and Thelan in "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System."[4] They have brought in most, if not all, of the factors which affect the operational conceptual scheme. They use an expanded linear representation in which they present the various factors essential to understanding and comprehending the environment in which teaching and learning takes place.

Purpose

Now, to the purpose component. Bloom, Krathwohl, and their associates use a hierarchical model for objectives in the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.*[5] This is a good model and, in this case, is handled in verbal form. Many people fail to see the significance of the hierarchical aspect of the taxonomy; that there are lower order objectives and higher order objectives. This little book by Sanders,

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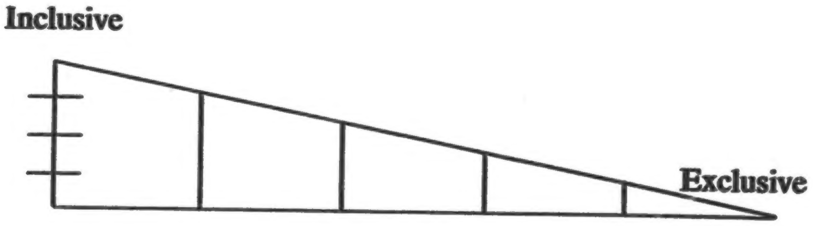
[4] Getzels, J. W. and Thelan, Herbert A. "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," 59th Yearbook, *National Society for The Study of Education,* Chapter IV.

[5] Bloom, Benjamin S., editor. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook I; Cognitive Domain.* New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1956.

Classroom Questions, What Kind?[6] is the application of questions in the teaching-learning situation using the Bloom taxonomy. It is well done and gives some basic insights into the process of question development and question handling in the conceptualization of that part of teaching.

The hierarchial model is basic to concept formation but a simpler operational design may have greater utility. Recently I have tried to "think about" purpose in modified continuum form where one extreme is inclusive of several sub-factors and the other is exclusive.



I started with all the sub-factors I could think of which are closely related to what we used to call general objectives. The notion of inclusiveness is what I am trying to show. One value of this representational form may be in thinking about the "of what" quality of an inclusive idea and the dimensional limits created by this criterion. I accuse the people in our curriculum center at Texas Christian of using the inclusive model. They seem to order everything in sight and throw away nothing. We have now come to the point where something will either have to be thrown away or we will have to dedicate another room. They have proposed the dedication of another room because they do not want to change the conceptual scheme, the inclusive model.

Another value of this representational form is that the exclusive notion seems essential to the identification and statement of behavioral objectives. The vertical dimension at the inclusive end of the continuum shows the "of what." As we begin to narrow in, we conceptualize the "of what" and how it relates to the exclusive purpose for any educational enterprise.

The simplified design considered alone does not accommodate the many levels needed so the model should be expanded. But it does represent an elementary way for examining the purpose component.

Content

Many teachers seem to consider content on a continuum design with one extreme being disorganized and the other organized or one as unstructured and the other structured but the nature of knowledge requires a more complex concept.

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[6] Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions; What Kinds?* New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1966.

Since the model developed by Hickey and Newton[7] (see Figure I) includes, at least indirectly, the concepts of organization, representation, economy, and power identified by Bruner[8] and also makes it possible to relate the content dimension to the other components, I prefer to use their work as the basis for concept development.

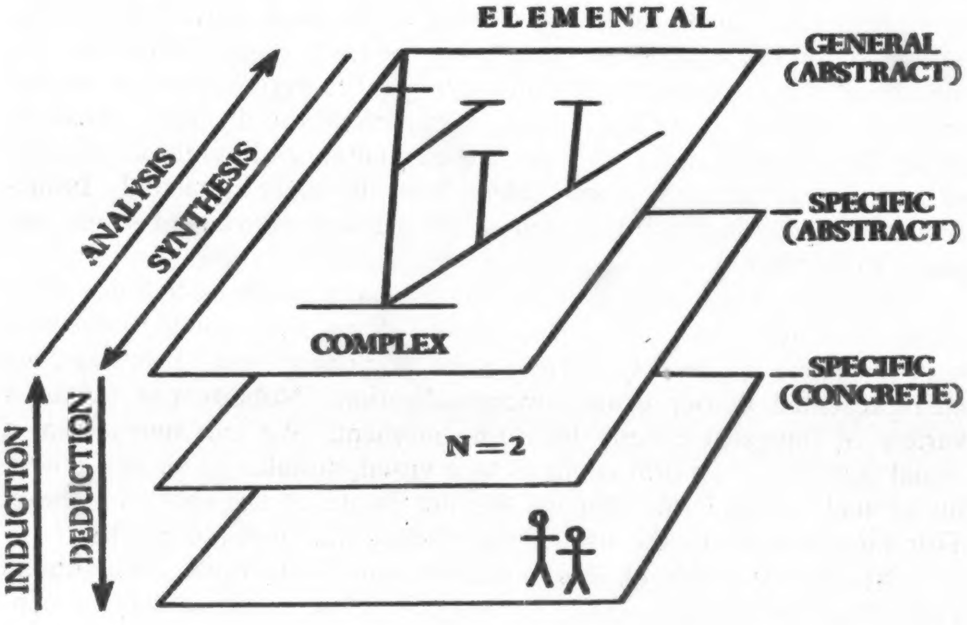

Figure I.—A Model of the Logic Space.

I am aware this model appears at first glance to be rather complex, but that is the nature of content.

Any conceptualization of teaching must include a meaningful subconcept of content. *Content is inherent in any teaching-learning situation and the organization of content influences all other components and elements.* Whether we wish to or not, we are forced to deal with it.

Some people believe I overemphasize the content component. I think they have failed to give enough thought to this dimension. The difference is in our concepts of content. To me, content is more than subject matter. Personal adjustment has substance. I think there is a content in the guidance situation. There is content or substance in self-realization; if you try to deal with self-realization without concern for substance, you get a no-substance person. I think this is what we have tried to do in many instances.

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[7] Hickey, Albert E. and Newton, John M. *The Logical Basis of Teaching: I. The Effect of Sub-concept Sequence on Learning.* Final Report to Office of Naval Research, Personnel and Training Branch, Contract Nonr—4215 (00). Newburyport, Mass.: ENTELEK, January 1964, p. 8.

[8] Bruner, Jerome S. "Some Theorems on Instruction Illustrated with Reference to Mathematics." *63rd Yearbook, NSSE.* Chapter IX.

One of the strengths of this representation by Hickey and Newton is that it pinpoints the processes of induction, deduction, analysis, and synthesis. The lowest plane represents the body of knowledge that is concrete. The middle plane shows the specific abstract kinds of content, and the general abstract form of content is represented by the top plane. Using the three-dimensional nature of these planes, the elemental notions can be shown by moving to the back part of the plane, and the complex notions by coming to the front page. When we use this model for looking at substance, we get the very important mental processes related. Note the arrows on the left of the diagram. Analysis moves from the complex back to the elemental, and synthesis consists of putting together higher order ideas from the more elemental. Induction and deduction are represented by vertical movement from one plane to another.

Actually when dealing with content in a teaching-learning situation, there is a back and forth, up and down and around movement because a person can only attend to one point at a time. This has been misrepresented in our usual conceptualization. Nobody can attend a variety of things at exactly the same moment. We can move from a visual stimulus to an oral stimulus to a visual stimulus to an oral stimulus at such a rapid rate that we are not aware of the shifts we make. This idea is basic to the use of the Hickey and Newton model.

Another strength of this representation is its total compatibility with other significant models. To me this is an excellent way to conceptualize content because it relates effectively to a design for learning and gives some clues about the nature of communication as we begin to conceptualize the teaching process.

I have found the Hickey and Newton model helpful but you may prefer to use the one developed by Guilford[9] and his associates. Their cubical representation of the structure of intellect clearly relates the content component to the mental processes of the learner.

Learning

Learning may be considered linearly, too. The S-R design is basically of this form. It is a linear representation of learning, usually uni-directional in its movement, although you can keep playing with stimulus-response, re-response, re-response, re-response, until it becomes interactive or even circular. I have seen the stimulus-response model work into a very tight vicious circle of interaction where the response gives a negative stimulus for the re-response, and so on. I used this example when I was teaching undergraduate courses. A girl will find it a good way to set off a vicious circle of interaction. When she has been called down for the date and she walks into the reception room and sees her boyfriend, all she needs to do is frown and say "You just look awful! Why did you come?" Odds are pretty good that he will say, "You don't look so hot yourself, and I came because I was expected to, not because I wanted to!" Then her response would be, "Well, if you didn't want to, why did you come? Why don't you just leave?" And he'll say, "By golly, I think I will." And that breaks up a beautiful friendship.

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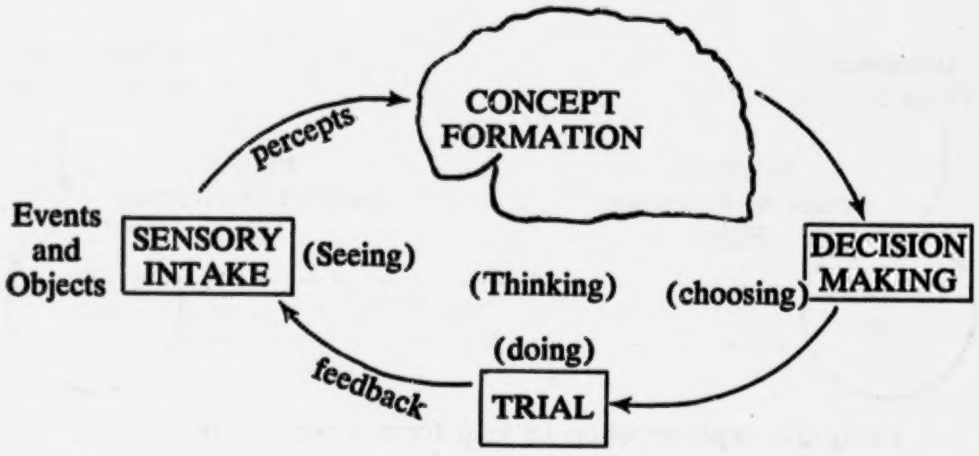
[9] Guilford, *op. cit.*

This can work the other way, too. When she comes down and waltzes in, just a sigh is all she really needs to use. This is a beautiful response to the stimulus of seeing him, and chances are he will sigh back, and then she whispers with that huskiness in her voice, "So glad you're here." And he will say, "I'm glad I'm here too." From then on, use caution!

The linear form is useful for considering the learning component of the teaching-learning situation. But the added dimension of a cyclic or cybernetic design offers a better descriptive basis for the organismic conception of learning and is, I believe, more adequate for the conceptualization of teaching. Since Woodruff's[10] notions about learning have a direct tie to behavior and teaching processes, I find his cybernetic representation of concepts helpful. I think it is a good one to sit down and think with. You can study it. You can play with it to see what would happen if you added something to it or took something out or altered it in another way. This is how we form and expand concepts. Woodruff calls these processes concepts.



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[10] Woodruff, Asahel D. in LaGrone, Herbert. *A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-Service Professional Component of a Program of Teacher Education.* Teacher Education and Media Project. Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964.

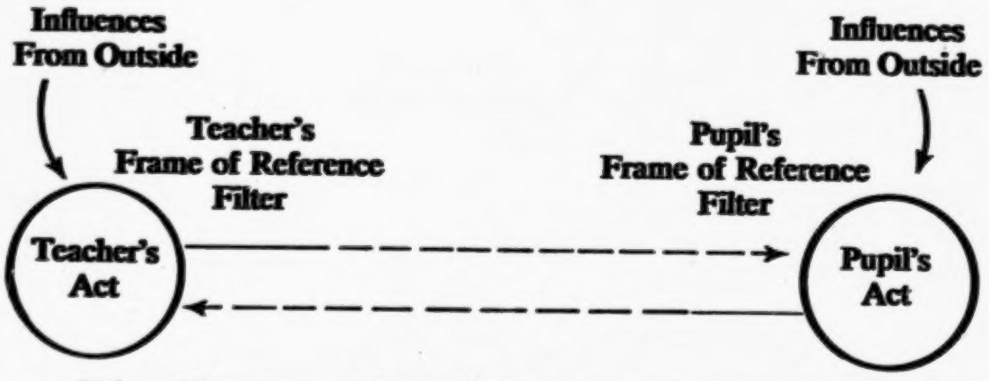
One reason I use Woodruff's representation is its compatibility with the content model developed by Hickey and Newton. In comparison with the S-R linear form, the Woodruff model is more complicated. It gives more detail and accommodates the power and use of language recently emphasized by Bruner. Once we get the power of language we can go beyond sensory input. This gives us a power that we should capitalize on.

For school learning I see no real danger in an emphasis on perception and concrete content. But we must remember that remaining at that level will almost inevitably inhibit learning. Further, we must also be aware that pitching everything at our level of abstraction may limit the learning of others.

Communication

Before I diagram a way of "thinking about" communication let me pause briefly and emphasize the *"thinking about."* If we "think about," assess, evaluate, or discuss teaching, then content, learning, and communication are in some way operational. These and possibly other components are inherent in all organized teaching-learning situations. There is no way to exclude them even though we may, through lack of awareness, fail to consider them. The only choice we have is to keep trying to understand.

There are several ways to look at communication. I believe the most useful one is an adaptation of the encoding-decoding design. I have used the Runkel[11] model to include the interactive aspect of teaching-learning and I want to stress that the design applies to both oral and non-oral communication forms.



Using this representation to help form a concept of teaching emphasizes some important factors and elements. We have to recognize that there are influences from the outside. These affect each of us. We operate from a frame of reference; we have a conceptual scheme. From that scheme we see, we hear, we think, and we work. We need to be aware of our own frame of reference. We must also recognize that the person we are trying to communicate with, the pupil, has a filter, too. He has a conceptual scheme and it is different from ours.

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[11] Gage, N. L. *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* (Edited by N. L. Gage.) Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

This model also illustrates and explains a major problem in communication: what we mean is not always what the other person gets. After the message gets through our own filter system it may not be exactly what we had in mind when we started. And certainly after it gets through the other person's filter system, it may not be anything like what we thought we sent out. This means that in the conceptualization of communication we have to be far more sensitive to both the encoding potential and the decoding potential. Our recent awareness of, and experience with, the educationally deprived have given increased importance to our concepts of communication and language. Outside influences and the filtering effect of an individual's frame of reference are receiving greater recognition.

Elements and Factors

I have not set up any diagrams for the elements that I identified as teacher, learner, and media. I intend to do further work in this area because I think many of the words that we use to talk about teacher, learner, and media are not very meaningful. They need a thorough analysis and re-relating, and we need to see them in terms of their relationship to the components. We have given them far more attention than we have the components, and often we have neglected the relationship between them. The literature bears this out.

We have employed such concepts as adequacy-inadequacy in both the personal and content areas as we "think about" the teacher and we have thought about the learner in terms of passive-active. All too frequently I believe the basic scheme for thinking about *media* has been as a communications substitute for teacher talk. As I mentioned earlier, media is an element of each of the components.

The media element has concerned me for some time but I think I am now getting close to part of the problem. As I see it, the word "technology" is more appropriate than "media." Technology is from a rather well-defined structural base.

Use of Technology in Teaching

Typical teaching is not very structured. As a matter of fact, most of the time it is what we in Texas call "shootin' from the hip." I know that in student teaching and methods courses we tell students that they ought to plan. And they do have some gross plans. They want children to learn. That is a worthy goal. But their teaching remains relatively unstructured. The crucial point is that technology is a structured system, and if you try to bring it into a loose system, the loose system must become structured. This is why we get resistance to technology by teachers and the ineffective use of it in teaching. But teachers continue to use it. I often wish they would not: "film every Friday" is a classic example. In this one they are using technology in an entertainment model, a "kick-off the shoes" design. The films have to fit into the instructional system model that is a part of the conceptual scheme of those teachers. When they use the entertainment model, conflict results because the loose system becomes structured with incompatible goals.

The properties approach to media developed in the TEAM project has been most helpful to me. A knowledge of these properties has helped to sharpen four ideas that must become a part of the conceptualization of teaching if technology is to operate effectively within the instructional system. First, media or technology extends human capacities. A classic example is the microscope. We can see more things with a microscope than we can see with the naked eye. In teacher education the videotape recorder serves much the same purpose. This recorder helps minimize the weakness of human memory and it also minimizes the differences between perceptual fields. The basic question is whether, in a given teaching-learning situation, unassisted human capacity will be adequate. If not, then technology must be brought into the instructional system.

The second idea is that media or technology can provide new content. It makes content available throughout the world, and is rapidly reaching the point where this can be done almost instantaneously. We are no longer dependent upon restrictions of proximity.

Third, it can point up the interrelationships within existing content. Boundaries can be crossed easily as well as quickly.

The fourth point is that technology gives us the opportunity to increase learning potential. Recently I have had occasion to look into computer-assisted instruction. This technology is going to be with us in significant quantity. I would class the old computer-assisted instruction as high-order programmed instruction. The basic concepts were essentially the same as for the tutored text. This was limited and hardly worth the expense of using the computer. It did, however, increase motivation and holding power. I could see some advantages in it as an instrument, but it was still very expensive if that was all you were going to get. In the new system two additions have been made to the computer system. One is a cathode ray tube. Anything that can be put in one or two-dimensional form can be used. There is a screen projector that can select any one of a thousand transparencies at the rate of fifty per second, so anything that can be pictured, diagrammed, or printed can be pulled up at a very rapid rate. There is also a two-hour audio in-put where description and explanation can be brought into the play. The second addition makes it unnecessary for students to be able to read, write, or type in order to deal with the system. It does require that they have some way to point. They give their responses by pointing at the cathode ray tube. These advances in computer-assisted instruction gives us a power that we have never had before, plus the analytical function of the computer. And, therefore, we can increase learning potential.

Technology, as it becomes more sophisticated, will require a greater sharpening of the concept of teaching that teachers must have. They will have to see themselves in new relationships and roles and they must have new sets of abilities and working patterns.

Translations From the System

This exploration of the simple instructional system, which I defined as "the integration of content, learning, and communication within an environment to seek a purpose," has led to the preparation of a preliminary restatement of the objectives for pre-service teacher education programs. Remember that this is a first effort; it is as yet incomplete.

The prospective teacher with an adequate conceptual structure and analytical competence will be able to:

1. Identify the components, elements, and factors inherent in a variety of teaching-learning situations. (Development of the power of recognition.)
2. Define and/or describe the nature of the components, elements, and factors. (Development of the power of discrimination and differentiation.)
3. Explore the organization of the components, elements, and factors. (Development of the power of analysis.)
4. Integrate the components, elements, and factors. (Development of the power of synthesis.)
5. Create dynamic experiences for themselves and their learners from these and other components, elements, and factors. (Development of the power of invention.)

Conclusion

I have explored some of the ideas that must be considered in any attempt to conceptualize teaching more adequately. There is, I believe, no question of the existence of the components, elements, and factors I have identified. There may be others, too. Until we begin to explore them, analyze them, relate them, and reorganize them, I think our conceptualization of teaching will be at a very low level and we will not have what is crucial to the potential for continuing teacher development.

We talk about the continuing education of teachers, but it is always in a terminal tone. We have to give teachers the equipment to see and assess and grow from their own experience, not simply record that experience. In order for teachers to improve their classroom practices, they must re-conceptualize teaching. It is through the exploration of the parts that are functional in the teacher-learning situation that I believe this will happen.

PART III

Research in Teaching

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While the art of teaching is of ancient lineage, a science of teaching has yet to be fully developed. Historically, any field has developed as research findings and empirical knowledge provided a foundation for progress. Preeminent among problems with which teacher education is fraught is its apparent inability to provide for its own systematic improvement. To be sure, efforts to examine selected aspects of the educative process abound, and have done so for many years; but how, if at all, do these efforts relate to teacher education per se? The field of education characteristically draws substance from such sources as psychology, philosophy, sociology, history, and practical experience, but the relationship of these disciplines to teaching has not been made explicit as yet. No systematic effort has been made to assess the knowledge from these sources as a basis for evolving valid substance for teacher preparation. The selection of content has been left essentially to textbook writers and individual professors, but the profession of teaching cannot continue to relegate such an important task to individual authorities, however competent and respected they may be. The result of this practice has given rise to programs that are replete with useless theoretical speculation about teaching and learning, pedagogical opinion and folklore, and frequently unjustified appeals to philosophical conceptions of the nature of man, knowledge, and society.

A program for the preparation of teachers can be no better than the substance of which it is composed. Many of the assumptions, curricula, and procedures which characterize programs of preparation today are of uncertain validity. Teacher education appears to have proceeded as though the content traditionally included in education courses were adequate, as though the important task were merely to find other ways of organizing and presenting what has been taught traditionally. A concerted effort must be made to rectify this condition; to weed out fads, doctrines, and immediate remedies; and to replace them with content that has been validated. To serve its function adequately, the practitioners of any profession must be educated to select appropriate methods of handling persons, subjects, or substances, depending upon the profession. The value of a professional program, then, depends upon the validity of the selections made, else preparation for practice is superfluous.

Knowledge Claims Essential

When one peruses the changes made over the past decades, he is struck with undeniable evidence that virtually all of those who are planning "improvement" of teacher education employ assumptions growing out of practical experience as a basis for the reorganization of certain portions of preparation. There are neither pre- nor post-innovational empirical data concerning the validity of such change. Most of the efforts are superficial in a research context; new knowledge is ignored, or missing altogether. This makes little sense in light of the widespread dissatisfaction with teaching. *For too long too many of us have enjoyed the comfort of opinion without the discomfort of providing evidence.*

Such a condition gives rise to some probing questions. What is the substance which should make up the content of teacher preparation? On what logical and/or empirical bases does it rest? What relationship does it bear to teaching performance tasks? How can this knowledge be integrated into a program of education for teachers so that curricular experiences can be devised which will positively affect the performance skills of a teacher?

This paper supports the crucial significance of these questions and accepts the assumptions which lie behind them, namely that (a) the substance and experiences pertinent to the education of teachers have been poorly identified, defined, and organized in current professional education; (b) the field of professional education can be characterized as not possessing an organized body of substance and experiences which contribute to the performance skills desired of teachers in the practice of their profession; and (c) it is not only possible, but immediately imperative, that these situations be rectified. The long-range development of the substance of this field must continue to be nurtured through intensive research efforts from which might result strong knowledge claims. The truisms that certain facets of teaching are unpredictable and creative and involve the tools of the artist, or that some of the substance of extant teacher education curricula is producing positive results, or that research is not the sole avenue to improving teacher education, do not negate the need for an immediate projection of the role which research efforts could and must play in the preparation of teachers.

Existing Knowledge Ignored

Carroll has written, "Consideration of what things should be taught to prospective teachers, and what action they should take as teachers sometimes seem to proceed as if educational research never existed."[12] Existing research in the field of teaching has had only a minimal impact upon curricula for the preparation of teachers. Current content and method have been generated almost exclusively on logical grounds without explicit empirical reference to a clear definition of criterion behavior. The utter complexity of teacher education has discouraged a disciplined search for useful criterion measures and their appropriate prediction. Criterion measures with demonstrable reliability are difficult to find, and when such are found, there is an uneasiness about their validity. Criterion measures of immediate and longer-range learner behavior must be established both for the teacher educator and for the student in programs of teacher education. Since educational research has failed to achieve a conceptual interlock—that is, it has not been put together into a functional discipline—it continues to have little impact upon the product of programs of preparation. One might well hypothesize that new knowledge is not essential or wanted if educators are absorbed with questions such as the control of teacher certification rather than with questions about what teachers do and should learn to do. Perhaps this concern we have with elements of the tangible periphery is why teacher educators have not investigated and assimilated data of foundational value; they have sought to *improve* teacher education rather than to *understand* it.

How does the profession move to solve the dilemma of building effective programs for preparing teachers when strong evidence for practice is yet in its infancy? Certainly, the exchange of general views concerning the state of the art and the defending and extending of organizational or manipulative approaches to the education of teachers have proven time and again to be ineffective. With due regard to those facets of existing programs which appear to assist prospective teachers, the time has come to face the problem of providing and utilizing the continuing flow of knowledge pertinent to teacher education so that not only may the preparation of teachers be understood and systematically improved, but also that the substance of preparation can be reconstituted and redefined through the use of empirically validated knowledge.

A Renaissance of Research on Teaching

In spite of its past shortcomings, a renaissance of research in terms of its scope, significance, methodology, and utilization is now taking shape. Much of the research with implication for restructuring practice is not integrated with the literature of teacher education. Studies concerning methodology, the systematic observation of classroom behavior, instruments and media of instruction, the open and closed mind, concept development, research on teaching, and the dynamics of group interaction are not considered to be teacher education literature under present definition. Gage's chapter in the *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, "Paradigms for Research on Teaching,"[13] Medley and Mitzel's discussion of "Measuring Classroom Behavior by Systematic Observation,"[14] and Wallen and Travers' treatment of "Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods"[15] serve as excellent examples of compilations of research which should be at the very heart of the study of teaching and teacher education, but are currently outside the usual definition of teacher education.

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[12] Carroll, John B. "Neglected Areas in Educational Research." *Phi Delta Kappan*, May 1961. 42:343.

In the recent past, research has been completed relating to teacher characteristics and the attitudes and values held by teachers. Variables falling into a number of classes have been identified as a result of these efforts, and some descriptions of the relationship of these variables to teaching and the education of teachers may be drawn. Exemplary of such attempts to understand teaching in a somewhat broad frame of reference are Ryans'[16] delineation of teacher characteristics and Barr's[17] review of studies dealing with teacher effectiveness. These studies appear to be penetrating the periphery of the heretofore unexplainable degree of deviance in the behavior of effective teachers. Much remains in a theoretical state which needs refinement and verification through further research.

Gibbs'[18] and Bales'[19] work with group behavior, Guildford's[20] "Analysis of Human Interest," Stein[21] "Summaries of Knowledge About Creativity," and Nix's[22] "Study of Role Stress" are illustrative of research in the social process fields related to education which have significant potential for delineating tasks of the classroom teacher. While the generalizability of such efforts is tentative, the analysis of their significance holds promise for generating content to be utilized in programs of preparation of teachers. Such studies constitute sources of valuable data that ought to be a part of programs of preparation since they assist in the illumination of the processes involved in teaching. Their implications for teacher education can no longer be ignored. Such studies also contribute some essential understandings in developing theoretical conceptions about teaching and classroom interaction. They help to delineate some of the tasks that must be mastered by a classroom teacher. Perhaps the greatest need faced by the profession is to develop a complete understanding of classroom behavior and to develop various conceptual frameworks suggested by research efforts for evolving theories of teaching. It has been said that "theory without practice is sterile; practice without theory is a vicious cycle." Assuming this statement to be true, it would appear that some of our current approaches to the preparation of teachers might be characterized by both sterility and vicious cycling.

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[13] Gage, N. L. *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* (Edited by N. L. Gage.) Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963. Chapter 3.

[14] Medley, D. M., and Mitzel, H. F. "Measuring Classroom Behavior by Systematic Observation." *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* (Edited by N. L. Gage.) Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

[15] Wallen, N. E., and Travers, R. M. W. "Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods." *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* (Edited by N. L. Gage.) Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

[16] Ryans, D. G. *Characteristics of Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1962.

[17] Barr, A. S., *Teacher Effectiveness: A Summary of Investigations.* Madison, Wisconsin: Dembar Publications, 1961.

[18] Gibb, L. M., and Gibb, J. R. "The Effects of the Use of 'Participative Action' Groups in a Course in General Psychology." *American Psychologist.* 1952, No. 7.

[19] Bales, R. F. *Interaction Process Analysis.* New York: Addison-Wesley, 1950.

[20] Guilford, J. P. and others. "A Factor Analysis of Human Interests." *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied,* 1954, Vol. 68, No. 4.

[21] Stein, Morris I., and Heinze, Shirley J. *Creativity and the Individual.* Glencoe: Free Press of the University of Chicago, 1960.

[22] Nix, Harold, and Bates, Frederick. "Occupational Role Stress: A Structural Approach." *Rural Sociology* 27: 1, 7-17; March 1962.

Teacher Behavior—A Focal Concept

For many years, attempts at the improvement of teacher preparation in general have focussed upon what the teacher is as a person, what knowledges a teacher must have, and/or what teachers value. While these attempts have yielded some very useful conceptions for certain improvements through practice, they have not provided the essential basic concept around which a disciplined study and development of teaching could center. Further, they have not generated the knowledge essential to move practice of teaching forward. *The concept which holds greatest promise for providing a base for the substance of teacher education, that is demonstratively relevant to actual teaching, is the analysis, description, and understanding of the teaching task itself.* It is recognized that some past efforts to analyze the job of the teacher have not always provided sufficient content for teacher education, but these partially unsatisfactory results may have derived more from the vantage point employed to analyze the job of the teacher than from any inherent weakness in the notion that the teaching task does provide relevant clues for evolving substance of programs of preparation. Analysis of the teaching task can degenerate into a job-time study, concentrating on the technical aspects of what a teacher does, or even more serious, on what a teacher *should* do. Relevance is found in an examination of teacher behaviors which are directed toward eliciting changes in learner behaviors. To justify this position, one might begin by asking, Why do we have professional schools for the preparation of teachers? To answer this question in general terms is not too difficult. Education is an applied, social process field. The objectives may vary from one time to another, or from one culture to another, and will consequently effect changes in, but will not change, the basic purpose of teacher education. This purpose will continue to be the development of behaviors on the part of a teacher which, when applied in a teaching-learning situation, will affect or structure the behavior of the learner in such a way that the attainment of certain behaviors on his part becomes likely. If this statement appears too self-evident, or glib, to be useful, may we be reminded that too few of us in the past have been very interested in developing knowledge concerning teacher behavior and teaching in classrooms. Such behavior has not been used as the test of relevance of content in preparation, and a concentrated effort has not been made to test empirically and experimentally either the nature of critical teacher behaviors or the impact of practice in teacher education on the development of these behaviors.

Teacher Behavior Studies

B. O. Smith has advanced the point of view that—

> The question of what knowledge is relevant to the control of teacher behavior is an empirical one, because teaching is a natural phenomenon. It has its own forms, its own constituent elements, its own regularities, and its own problems. It takes place under a stable set of conditions—time limits, authority figures, systems of knowledge, social structures, psychological capacities, etc. If we would understand teaching and thereby gain control over it, we must first study it in its own right.[23]

Descriptive Research on Teaching

Within the past decade or so there has been a shift in the direction of educational research. The focus of inquiry has become what actually happens in classrooms, and attempts have been made to describe through systematic analysis what a teacher does and how he behaves while teaching. Several groups have viewed teacher behavior in terms of roles played and functions performed. They are interested primarily in what goes on in classrooms when teachers and learners come face to face. Careful examination of these factors are crucial in gaining an understanding of instructional processes.

Since interest in descriptive research on teaching has been initiated, numerous experimental studies that involve the observation of classroom teaching have resulted in the development of instruments for the analysis of teacher behavior. The result is that there is now available a variety of instruments for analyzing such behavior. While these studies all reflect, in some ways, a common orientation, they also tend to differ in other aspects. But the common perception shared by all is that increased understanding of the processes of teaching can be gained by observation of classrooms in action. It is impossible to discuss in detail any of the studies completed in classroom behavior. What will be presented here is a sample of these efforts to illustrate that research has, indeed, provided significant understandings about the nature and practice of teaching.

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[23] Smith, B. O. *Knowledge About Knowledge for Teachers.* Urbana; University of Illinois, 1961 (Mimeo.). p. 2.

Studies of Integrative and Dominative Behavior

Most of the studies of classroom or psychological climate trace their origin to the work of Anderson[24, 25] and his colleagues during the 1940's, in which classroom climate was defined in terms of the dominative or integrative acts of the teacher. Two major hypotheses resulted from these efforts: the hypothesis of the growth circle which states that socially integrative behavior in one person tends to induce socially integrative behavior in others, and the hypothesis of the vicious circle which states that dominative behavior in one person tends to incite domination and resistance in others. Research over several years led to the conclusion that integrative behavior in one child induced integrative behavior in another. Domination incited domination. Integration and domination were psychologically different. The data also confirmed that integrative action by the teacher induced integrative behavior in the learner. Children with the more dominating teacher showed significantly higher frequencies of nonconforming behavior, which directly supported the hypothesis that domination incites resistance. The behaviors of the learner supported the hypothesis that severe domination produced not only resistance, but submission and atrophy of learning.

Studies in Democratic, Authoritarian, and Laissez-faire Patterns

A parallel line of research was begun at about the same time by Lippitt and White,[26] who conducted laboratory experiments in democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire patterns of leadership employed by teachers in school-sponsored club activities. The conclusions of this research tended to confirm those obtained by the Anderson studies. The incidence of aggressive learner behavior in the autocratic groups was either very high or very low when compared to the democratically taught groups. In those autocratic groups in which student aggression was low, it showed a marked increase when the teacher left the room. When the leader was in the room, the work output of students was about the same for the democratic and autocratic groups; but when the leader left, there was a significant drop in work output in the autocratic groups, but little change in output in the democratic ones.

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[24] Anderson, J., and Brewer, E. *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities, II: Effects of Teachers' Dominative and Integrative Contacts on Children's Classroom Behavior.* Applied Psychology Monographs, 1946, No. 6.

[25] Anderson, *op. cit.*, No. 8.

[26] Lippitt, R., and White, R. K. "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups." *Child Behavior and Development.* (Edited by R. G. Barker, J. S. Kounin, and H. F. Wright.) New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1943. pp. 458-508.

Studies of Emotional Classroom Climate

Following the establishment of the concept of the importance of social or psychological climate in teaching, Withall[27] developed a study similar in nature to Anderson's dominative-integrative conceptions. The result of his work concluded that when the teacher-centered pattern was sustained, it produced anxiety which was disruptive and student ability to recall the material was reduced. He found the reverse to be true in student reactions to learner-centered teaching.

Using the technique developed by Withall, and his system for categorizing teaching behaviors, Perkins[28] found that differences in social-emotional climate produced significant differences in group learning as revealed in the verbal statements made by groups of in-service teachers participating in an established program of child study.

Also building upon Withall's work, Medley and Mitzel[29] related emotional climate to several dimensions of teacher effectiveness. They reported positive correlations between emotional climate and reading growth, group problem solving, pupil-teacher rapport, and teacher self-rating.

These studies of classroom climate, emphasizing the importance of the social or psychological climate, have been used in developing the rationale of several more recent, complex studies.

Classroom Interaction Studies

The most intensive long-range program of this dimension has been conducted under the leadership of Flanders.[30] His original investigation used the Withall formulations and reported that teacher-centered behaviors fostered more negative feelings in students and resulted in higher anxiety and greater concern with interpersonal problems than did student-centered behavior. Conversely, student-centered behaviors were characterized by a greater concern with learning problems.

Flanders'[31,32,33,34] subsequent research was directed toward describing the effects of teacher behavior on classroom climate and learning goals. He found that the verbal pattern of teachers in high-achieving classrooms were significantly different from those in low-achieving classrooms. Teacher behavior patterns that created contrasting classroom climate were summarized as follows:

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[27] Withall, John. "Assessment of the Social-Emotional Climates Experienced by a Group of Seventh Graders as They Moved From Class to Class." *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 12: 440-51; Autumn 1952.

[28] Perkins, H. V. "Climate Influences Group Learning." *Journal of Educational Research* 45: 115-19; October 1951.

[29] Medley, D. M., and Mitzel, H. E. "Some Educational Correlates of Teacher Effectiveness." Journal of Educational Psychology 50: 239-46; 1959.

[30] Flanders, N. A. "Personal-Social Anxiety as a Factor in Experimental Learning Situations." *Journal of Educational Research* 45: 100-10; October 1951.

[31] Flanders, N. A. *Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1960.

[32] Flanders, N. A. "Teacher and Classroom Influences on Individual Learning." Paper delivered at the Seventh Curriculum Research Institute of the Association for School Curriculum Development, 1961.

[33] Flanders, N. A. "Teacher Influence in the Classroom, Research on Classroom Climate." Paper delivered at Teachers College, Columbia University, April 14, 1962.

[34] Flanders, N. A. *Helping Teachers Change Their Behavior.* Ann Arbor: School of Education, University of Michigan, 1963.

Indirect Influence Pattern	*Direct Influence Pattern*
1. Accepts, clarifies, and supports the ideas and feelings of students	1. Expresses or lectures about own ideas or knowledge
2. Praises and encourages	2. Gives directions and orders
3. Asks questions and stimulates student participation in decision making	3. Criticizes or deprecates student's behavior with intent to change it

The series of investigations initiated by Flanders has been very influential in providing data about teaching and learning. Confirming and parallel research efforts have been carried on by many other investigators using Flanders' system of interaction analysis. These studies have been applied to various situations of teaching-learning in classrooms, in programs of preparation of teachers, and in extensive work in in-service education. This complex of investigations yields conclusions and substantiation of the importance of psychological climate and its relationship to student learning which can no longer be ignored or refuted in matters concerning teacher preparation.

Studies for Describing and Defining Good Teaching

Hughes and associates[35] conducted a study that paralleled Flanders'. They, too, analyzed teaching in terms of degrees of control and freedom in the classroom. Primary effort was directed toward defining and describing good teaching. Hughes clearly established that it was possible to describe many of the complexities of teaching by direct observation of classroom behavior. Through the use of a rather complex instrument, more specific descriptions of certain dimensions of teaching were provided than had been available previously. As a result of this investigation, a model of good teaching was projected, based on the frequencies of teacher acts falling into major categories. Good teaching was then represented by patterns of behavior within the following limits:

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[35] Hughes, M., and associates. *Development of the Means for the Assessment of the Quality of Teaching in Elementary Schools.* Salt Lake City: University of Utah Press, 1959.

Controlling behaviors	20-40 percent	of total teacher behavior
Imposition	1- 3 percent	
Facilitating behaviors	5-15 percent	
Content development behaviors	20-40 percent	
Personal response behaviors	8-20 percent	
Positive affectivity behaviors	10-20 percent	
Negative affectivity behaviors	3-10 percent	

Efforts discussed thus far have been mainly and directly concerned with the quantification and analysis of behavior as observed, not with cognitive aspects of teaching.

Studies of Cognitive Aspects of Teaching-Learning

Major efforts aimed at general formulations of principles of teaching behavior related to the achievement of cognitive objectives have developed most recently. Those objectives which have been studied are of various kinds—ability to recall or recognize facts, definitions, laws—and analysis of intellectual arts and skills such as the ability to analyze, evaluate, synthesize, and interpret.

Smith and his associates[36] were the first to give careful consideration to the logical aspects of teaching behavior. In their original study, these investigators developed a framework and a set of concepts to describe and analyze classroom discourse associated with certain content objectives. They developed a means of conceptualizing the verbal maneuvers involved in a teacher behavior.

Study in the Logical Aspects of Teacher Behavior:

A more recent study by the same investigators[37] extends and broadens the earlier effort. The new study differs from the earlier one in some significant aspects. While the basic units of analysis in the earlier study were the *episode* and the *monologue,* in the more recently conceived unit one, the *strategy* forms the basis for analysis. Two other units, the *venture* and the *move,* are also used to identify and clarify the concept of teaching strategies. Each teaching strategy represents a patterning of moves within a conceptual venture. Strategies consist essentially of combinations of various kinds of moves employed in teaching, while a venture is a segment of discourse consisting of a set of utterances that deal with a single topic having a single content objective. Ventures are classified by their cognitive import: their central meaning or theme. A move is a verbal activity which logically or analytically relates to some event or thing, or to some class of events or things. Smith has tentatively identified four major types of strategies representing groupings of conceptual moves. When taken together these four different types of strategies are seen as tactics employed by a teacher in achieving a content objective.

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[36] Smith, B. O., and Meux, Milton O. *A Study of the Logic of Teaching: A Report on the First Phase of a Five-Year Research Project.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1959. (Dittoed.)

[37] Smith, B. O., Meux, Milton O., Combs, J., and Nuthall, G. *A Tentative Report on the Strategies of Teaching.* U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 1640. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1964.

As a result of this work, a set of concepts was developed and a framework established which can be used in the description and analysis of classroom discourse associated with the achievement of content objectives. The notion of strategies provides an important means of conceptualizing verbal maneuvers employed by a teacher in this aspect of his behavior.

Study of Kinds of Meaning Conveyed in Classroom Discourse:

Bellack and his associates[38] were primarily concerned with the various kinds of meaning conveyed through language that teachers and learners use in classroom discourse. Their work is based on Wichtenstein's notion that the meaning of a word is its use in the language. They describe verbal activities as language games in analyzing teaching, in the sense that teaching is a form of rule-governed behavior. The bulk of their study was concerned with identifying the ground rules of teaching and then describing the respective roles that the teacher and learner play when engaged in the game of teaching. It was substantiated that the various pedagogical roles of the classroom are clearly delineated for both teacher and learner.

One of the significant outcomes of this research was the concept of the *pedagogical move* employed as the unit of analysis through which substantive, logical, and emotional meanings could be analyzed. These units were conceived as *verbal maneuvers* comparable to moves in a chess game or plays in a game such as football. Given the universe of verbal behavior in a classroom, everything that was spoken by both teacher and learners could be categorized. This categorization then made it possible to describe what teachers and learners were doing pedagogically and contributed to an understanding of the distinctive functions of the teacher and the learner. Out of this analysis grew the notion of *teaching cycles* as a means of extending and broadening the analysis and description of the patterns of classroom discourse. A teaching cycle is seen as an interrelated series of verbal behaviors and enables description of the flow and rhythm of language employed in teaching. Thus, the teaching cycle enables one to conceptualize the larger units of classroom discourse. What emerges from an analysis of teaching cycles is a description of various linguistic patterns employed in classrooms. These descriptions offer a multidimensional method for analyzing and describing teaching which might lead ultimately to the development of a teaching theory.

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[38] Bellack, A. A., and Davits, J. R., in collaboration with Kliebard, H. M., and Hyman, R. T. *The Language of the Classroom: Meanings Communicated in High School Teaching.* Paper read at the American Education Research Association, Chicago, February 1965.

Study of Lifting Thinking in the Classroom:

Taba and her associates[39] were also concerned with cognitive processes, but their approach was somewhat different from those previously reported. They were interested in assessing the role of curriculum organization and teacher education in a development of thinking processes in learners. A curriculum was developed and a program of teacher education devised with the explicit purpose of achieving a high level of thinking in elementary school children. A concept of thinking and instruments were evolved by which certain cognitive processes could be observed, measured, and analyzed. Three clusters of cognitive processes were identified and analyzed in terms of their basic elements and according to the ways one masters such processes.

This conceptualization of cognitive tasks provided the framework for the training of the teachers involved in the study. During the training process, special attention was given to the development of cognitive skills in elementary school social studies classes.

Through the use of the coding system, one was provided a means for tracing the patterns of development of cognitive skills as this development occurred in a classroom. The system enabled one to map teaching strategies and to determine how teachers sought to extend a given level of thought to another higher level of thought.

The results of the study are given in terms of changes in the measures of cognitive skill and provide descriptions of the teaching strategies employed to bring about such changes. An important finding of this work was that the most marked single influence on cognitive performances in children resided in the impact of the teaching strategies employed by the teacher. The whole pattern of teacher behaviors determined the level of response attained by the learners.

Study of Responsive and Directive Functions of Teaching:

A study by Miller[40] is unique in the literature of teacher behavior in that it was devised to test a partial theory of instruction derived from certain aspects of social psychology and educational pedagogy. This effort made explicit an emerging theory and then submitted the theory to empirical testing. A system of classification, the Responsive-Directive Scale, evolved from the theory of instruction. The system divided teaching behaviors into two basic divisions: (a) working on content, or task; and (b) maintaining social order. These divisions were further broken down into specific teaching functions. According to the theory, a teacher discharges the two basic responsibilities and performs the teaching functions by playing a wide variety of roles. These roles, and their import for learning, were analyzed in detail.

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[39] Taba, Hilda, Levine, S., and Elzey, F. F. *Thinking in Elementary School Children.* U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 1574. San Francisco: San Francisco State College, 1964.

[40] Miller, George L. *An Investigation of Teaching Behavior and Pupil Thinking.* Portion of a thesis, University of Utah, May 1964.

The conclusions of this study have significance for those interested in understanding teaching. When content was studied, responsive teaching was more effective than directive teaching. Pupils discussing content under teaching behavior which was characterized by responsiveness to learner cues evidenced more complex, or higher levels, of mental activity than did pupils under teaching which ignored these cues. Pupils under responsive teaching expressed more positive attitudes toward the experience and achieved as much on objective-type tests when compared with pupils who were instructed under directive teaching. The investigator states that while these conclusions may not be characteristic of all pupils and all teachers, it is likely that the findings are generally applicable.

This endeavor confirmed parts of the theory that had been evolved. The theory failed to predict achievement, either in mastery of facts or in higher understanding of pupils, but it did predict results in levels of pupil understanding in discussion. In contrast to the results of other investigators, the directive-responsive dimension had no real effect upon mastery of facts or deeper meaning as measured by achievement tests. Pupil-exhibited understanding of a subject during discussion was not related to measured achievement in that subject matter.

A Synthesis of New Evolving Views of Teacher Behavior:

It will be recognized immediately that the efforts described above were purposely designed to yield data about teaching based upon hypotheses developed from a particular philosophical or psychological orientation, or they were directed to the analysis of certain kinds of teaching behaviors. Each of these has provided paradigms and theories, explicit or implicit, through which teaching behavior is viewed. Such advances in research on classroom behavior have provided a base on which the classification and description of all teacher behaviors might be projected. The fact that these studies have been successful in delineating selected facets of the classroom situation indicates that a combination of those researches, their findings and their viewpoints, might produce a knowledge synthesis embodying the advances made by the separate studies. Such a synthesis holds potential for providing a more complete understanding of teacher behavior than can be derived from any single effort.

Assuming this position to be a valid one, a recent study completed by Openshaw and associates[41] attempted to develop a taxonomy of teacher classroom behaviors. The purpose of the project, as originally conceived, was to use concepts developed by others, to build upon their specific findings, and to synthesize their instrumentation and methodology. One significant departure from other attempts was that in the study great effort was made to keep conceptions about the nature of teaching and the systems of categories for viewing teaching as value-free as possible. No specific hypotheses, or effectiveness constructs, were used. The purpose was to develop a system of categories which would permit the classification and description of all observable teacher classroom behaviors—good or bad, logical or illogical, directive or integrative, verbal or non-verbal.

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[41] Openshaw, M. Karl, Cyphert, Frederick R., and associates. *Development of a Taxonomy for the Classification of Teacher Classroom Behavior.* Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1966.

Through the use of selected broad descriptive categories of teacher behavior developed by others, teams of observers entered classrooms and began the process of observing the behaviors employed by teachers. After a period of several weeks, it became apparent to those involved in the study that both specific behaviors and patterns of behaviors employed by teachers could be classified under several major rubrics. An initial system of classification was evolved through this inductive approach. Operational definitions of the categories of teacher behavior were developed over a period of several months, employing this process over and over again. Systems of classification were extended through classroom observation to cover possible gaps and points of overlap within a comprehensive view of teacher behavior. The categories evolved by one team of observers were analyzed and incorporated into the conceptions evolved by a second team. Eventually, the categories of one system were integrated with another by subsuming the specific behaviors under the more general.

Developing a Taxonomy of Teacher Classroom Behaviors:

The results of these initial efforts were developed in a loose fashion into a working paper which served as a basis for discussion and study by the project staff. These tentative ideas and findings were then sent to several specialists in the field of teacher behavior for their reactions and suggestions for modification and further refinement. These reactions were given careful consideration and the process of category development, definition of categories, and further refinement through classroom observation was again undertaken.

Eventually a series of working models was projected to identify and show relationship among the essential elements of teacher behavior as observed. When the models of teaching could not be further expanded and the categories within the taxonomy seemed sufficient by the developers, the work was subjected to empirical testing. This initial field test of the models, taxonomy, instruments for recording and classification, and observation procedures and techniques was carried out by a team at the University of Arizona. None of the participants in this field study had been involved in the development of the work to this point.

The field team undertook a training program in preparation for the pilot observations and tryout. A range of subject matter teaching and grade level of classrooms was included in the sample. Classrooms from grade one through graduate teaching at the University were included. A representative crosssection of the community of Tucson was selected with student populations represented from lower and lower-middle classes to upper and upper-middle classes.

Analyses of the results of the pilot study indicated further revisions were necessary to make the systems for categorization and the instruments employed in data collection more comprehensive and precise. The major validation study used as a basic data source kinescoped sequences of spontaneous teacher behaviors. In all cases, the kinescope was made of a regular classroom teacher confronting children with whom he was familiar in student-learner relationship.

The observed behaviors were classified at least three times, once with a forced coding at a fifteen-second interval, once with a forced coding at a ten-second interval, and once at random without any set time interval.

Following the data collection period, comparisons were made of the different timed observations, adjustments of discrepancies in coding were made, data derived from coding were analyzed, and profiles of teacher behaviors were prepared.

The plan for the development of the systems of classification called for the cessation of adequacy testing when crucial additions or deletions in the paradigms of teaching and the taxonomy were no longer suggested by teacher behaviors that could not be classified. This guideline was established to eliminate the necessity of setting an arbitrary number of needed observations of classroom situations and also to provide a reasonable limitation to the number of observations required to fulfill the purposes of this endeavor.

It is felt that the activities of this endeavor eventuated in a system for the classification and description of *all* observable dimensions of teacher classroom behavior, despite the fact that there are still some problems in the use of this taxonomy which result from its complexity. These problems reflect the phenomena that comprise teaching. At its present stage of development, this work provides a means for the empirical description of levels of behavior and furnishes a conceptual screen through which behaviors may be viewed that is perhaps more comprehensive than has been possible previously.

Some Promising Results

Research in teaching is beginning to have an impact on some programs. While it has not yet reached the point of significance nationally, it is exerting influence upon practice at certain institutions. For example, stronger emphasis is being placed on the critical consumption of research reports for preservice teachers; several major institutions have continuing research projects in teacher behavior and in teacher education, and the findings emanating from these efforts are being put to use; the psychic and physical energy invested in research has added dynamism to their faculties and programs.

Attention is being given to the analysis of classroom behaviors as a basis for preparation. A recent report by Waimon and Hermanowicz[42] includes the systematic study of teaching itself as it occurs in classrooms by providing prospective teachers with a system for analyzing classroom behavior and training in the use of that system. Practice in the use of various systems has been incorporated into programs of preparation at such institutions as Teachers College, Columbia University; Lesley College; Ohio State University; Temple University; and Stanford University.

It is hoped that the proposal for the revision of the programs of teacher education, as conceived by LaGrone[43] under the sponsorship of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, has been given careful analysis and that it is being adapted in many institutions. The bases for this proposal are firmly rooted in major research efforts of the last ten years, and the outline of suggested experiences and courses presented is geared to developing competence related to the classroom functions of the teacher. This report describes some of the essential preservice professional subject matter for teachers and, as such, warrants the thoughtful study of all. Teaching activities have been utilized as the integrative element for the structure of the proposed content.

These are illustrative of scores of efforts being made to reformulate professional education. They give recognition to the concept that improvement of practice can result through research efforts. Still, leaders in the field of teacher education continue to express concern over the paucity of verified knowledge in present curricula due, in part, to their past concern with the limits and constraints instead of with an understanding of the dynamics involved in teaching. The limits are comprised of those elements that represent the "givens" in the teaching-learning situation, such as the way persons and groups react to their preparation for teaching, the attitudes held by teachers, and the sources and organization of programs. The dynamic component focusses upon teacher behavior, classroom performance tasks, and the interaction between teacher and student in the learning situation. There is equal concern about the obtuse relationship between what is learned in preparation and subsequent skill in actual teaching. Scarcely anyone would deny that such a state of affairs is intolerable. Solutions to such problems may be close at hand; financial support for research geared to the development of new knowledge is now available; efforts of certain individuals are providing the essential base for a science of teaching; validated knowledge is emerging for developing needed teacher behavior skills through preparation.

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[42] Waimon, M. D., and Hermanowicz, H. J. "A Conceptual System for Prospective Teachers to Study Teaching Behavior." Paper read at the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, February 1965.

[43] LaGrone, Herbert F. *A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-Service Component of a Program of Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964.

The Road Ahead

It is recognized that there is no one formula available on which content improvement in teacher education can proceed with assurance of success. In our search for better ways of preparing teachers, certain arbitrary definitions must be imposed by those who assume responsibility for this important task. Assuming that the classification of knowledge represents the imposition of some scheme, derived by human beings, on a selected body of content chosen from a larger available body of knowledge, and that the bases for derivation and selection must relate to philosophically derived educational objectives, it is immediately apparent that there is no one route to substance identification, definition, and organization. The justification of the approach chosen must rest initially on the face validity of the arbitrary inclusions and exclusions agreed upon in light of the process selected.

Despite this recognition, it is the thesis of this paper that the crucial concern for teacher educators is with those experiences for which they have direct responsibility and control—the professional education of teachers. There are those who would argue that there is need to study all of the experiences that affect a teacher, i.e., the substantive areas, general education, and professional education. The writer would accept this viewpoint as being ultimately true; but would give emphasis to the point that education, as a field of study, will never become a discipline, as indeed it must, if it continues to be viewed as broad as life itself. Therefore, research in teacher education must first concentrate on how the larger field of human knowledge can be applied most effectively to changing the behavior of teachers so that those behaviors will ultimately hold potential for fostering learning in others. What is proposed here is relatively simple. Knowledge, to be valid for teacher preparation, must be useful to teachers when teaching. Thus, teacher behavior, or teaching performance skill, is set forth as *the* vantage point for considering the relevance of content in teacher education and *the* focal point for continuing research within the field. Despite the simplicity of this statement, its implications for practice would be profound if it were accepted. The use of teacher behavior as *the* vantage point would mean that the teacher educator would submit his content to examination in terms of the relevance of that content to teacher behaviors and the effect of those behaviors on consequent student learning. With this as the criterion, much of the mixture of personal and professional opinion—generalizations too often unsupported by substantiating or explanatory data—which currently masquerades as content in teacher preparation would become irrelevant. On the other hand, gaps in knowledge might well be identified, and much of what is presently taught might find both a new validity and a new relationship to the content of the field of teacher education.

This proposal leaves untouched a variety of problems which would be faced by the teacher educator in the conduct of his work, but this recognition in no sense detracts from the necessity of using current knowledge concerning teacher behaviors and teaching performance skills as the focal point in identifying and organizing the content of teacher education. Nor does it reduce the necessity for continued research efforts to add to what we now know about teacher behavior. We must continue in the pursuit of knowledge which is both specific and generalizable, which can be translated into skills through appropriate training, which is directly related to classroom performance, and which has relationships capable of generating defensible explanatory theory. Ultimately, this approach would result in the continuous revitalization of the substance of teacher preparation at both preservice and continuing education levels.

Part IV

Teacher Education—A Problem in Becoming

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For more than thirty years it has been my privilege to be engaged in the practice of clinical psychology, counseling, psychotherapy, and teaching. For most of that time I have also been deeply involved in the training of professional workers in these occupations. Out of this experience I have found it necessary to change some of my former thinking about the training of persons in such helping professions. Some of these ideas I have already set down in a paperback, *The Professional Education of Teachers.*[44] I would like to extend that line of thought a bit further, emphasizing four aspects of the problem of teacher education of special significance as I see them.

The "Self as Instrument"

One cannot work for long with persons in the helping professions without being struck by the unique and individual character of their operations. The outstanding fact about workers in teaching, counseling, social work, psychology, psychiatry, the clergy, administration, and supervision is the fact of their personness. They are thinking, active, creative, problem-solving persons who have learned to use themselves more or less effectively to carry out their own purposes as well as those of society. This I have referred to elsewhere as the "self as instrument" concept of the professional worker. The term is not my invention. It has been used in the social work profession to describe the task of the effective worker in that field for a very long time. What makes an effective professional worker is not a question of his behaving in any particular way. Rather, it seems to be a matter of how effectively he has learned to use his unique self in carrying out the functions his particular branch of the helping professions is responsible for. One has but to look back at his own experience to recognize that the good and poor teachers in his past were unique in who they were rather than in what they did. What makes an effective professional worker is much more than a matter of the acquisition of knowledge and the proper application of the methods appropriate for the profession. It is the unique combination of these in a human being which determines the success or failure of persons in the helping vocations.

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[44] Combs, A. W. *The Professional Education of Teachers.* Boston: Allyn, Bacon, & Co., 1965.

Becoming a Teacher:

An effective self is not something taught or given. A self grows through a process of discovery from its interaction with the world throughout its lifetime. A self becomes. The production of an effective professional worker is a process of personal becoming. We do not say about someone entering the legal profession, He is learning to law. Nor do we say of the physician, He is learning to doctor. Rather, we say, He is learning to *be* a lawyer, or he is *becoming* a doctor. Similarly, in teacher education, our task is not to teach our students how to teach but to help them become teachers.

Becoming is a problem in growth. It is an internal event going on inside the learner and only in limited degree open to external manipulation. It can be encouraged, facilitated, or assisted in its development by outsiders, or it can be discouraged, inhibited, distorted, and even destroyed by outsiders. The direction and control of growth, however, always remains with the person himself. The production of an effective professional worker thus requires the commitment and involvement of the learner in a continuous process of problem solving. Other professions have long preceded us in this concept of professional training. Most medical colleges have abandoned the attempt to produce physicians by teaching them what to do and how to do it. Such an approach leaves the physician helpless when he is confronted with problems his college did not foresee. Modern practice is to regard the young physician as a problem solver. He is seen as a *thinking* person. The task is not to teach him to apply the right prescriptions when he spots a particular condition; rather, he is exposed to a body of knowledge, techniques, procedures, and theory and to the necessity for applying these to the solution of practical problems. A similar use of the "self as instrument" concept is to be found in the social work profession. I believe a similar philosophy for teacher education is long overdue.

Applying the "Self as Instrument" Concept to Teacher Education:

The adoption of a "self as instrument" concept for teacher education supplies us with a new set of glasses for examining our procedures. Looking at what we have been doing from this point of view we will no doubt find that some of our goals and processes are acceptable. That will be comfortable. We will also find that some of our time-worn ideas will need to be modified, even eliminated entirely on occasion.

That, of course, will be painful. However, if there is any validity in the "self as instrument" concept it should lead us to the solution of some of the problems which have frustrated us in the past. That should make it all worthwhile.

In the research on the helping professions completed to date at the University of Florida, it has been found that good counselors, teachers, and Episcopal priests can be distinguished from poor ones on the basis of how they perceive themselves. Effective helpers see themselves in essentially positive ways. Good teachers, for example, see themselves as enough; as having what is needed to deal with their problems. They also see themselves as trustworthy and wanted, as persons of consequence, dignity, integrity, and worthy of respect. In addition they feel deeply identified or "one" with other people. A "self as instrument" concept of professional work, it appears, calls for a program in which the person of the student is paramount. Teacher education must be even more student-centered than the programs we are currently advocating for students in the public schools. It must begin with an acceptance of the student as he is and where he is. Following that, it must surround him with experiences designed to help him see himself in ever more adequate ways.

The self is learned from experience. It follows that if teachers are to feel trustworthy, wanted, and worthy it is necessary to treat them as though they are. Similarly, one learns to feel "one" with others by discovering that human interactions are satisfying, safe, and enhancing. In these characteristics of good teachers, it is not difficult to perceive the general directions in which our programs must move.

The Problem of the Dehumanization of Teacher Education:

Clearly, there is no place in such a program for the dehumanizing influences currently operating in much of education elsewhere. Student cries "not to fold, spindle, or mutilate me!" may be regarded with amusement in some educational circles. If they occur in teacher education they are a blatant indication that we are seriously missing the boat. Professional education is a personal problem requiring the commitment and involvement of the student's self in the process. Whatever drives him to defend and shield his self from involvement is destructive to all we hope to accomplish. Yet much of what happens to students in these days of massive pressures has precisely that effect. I once asked a group of sophomores taking their first class in education why it was they were so generally uncommitted. Their answers shocked me. Here are some of the things they reported:

> Nobody ever treats us as though we were important.
>
> It's grades, grades, grades, that's all that matters.
>
> Teachers and students are enemies of each other where they ought to be friends.
>
> You can never question anything.

> They feed you a pabulum diet. It's all chewed over and there's nothing left in it.
>
> Nobody treats us as though we had any ideas of our own.
>
> All they want is conformity.

The most shocking thing of all was the following statement on which they all agreed: "The things worth getting committed to don't get you ahead." These young people have thoroughly learned *not* to let themselves be involved in the educational processes in which they are enmeshed.

Unfortunately, in our current efforts to upgrade the educational system, many of the things we are advocating seem almost expressly designed to further this destructive alienation. In many places we have become so enthralled with the wonders of modern educational hardware like computers, teaching machines, television, and programmed learning that we have quite overlooked the human side of this equation. Some of these efforts remind me of the story told by a friend of mine about a tribe on a South Sea island which believes the worst thing that can happen to a man is that his spirit should escape from his body. Accordingly, when a member of the tribe becomes seriously ill it is a matter of great concern to everyone. If he does not recover in a reasonable period of time, drastic steps are taken to keep his spirit from getting away. They do this by making a mixture of grass, mud, leaves, and the like and plugging up all the patient's body openings. Under this treatment, of course, the patient *always* dies but everyone feels better, because they did something about it!

Dehumanization is bad enough in education generally. In teacher education it is a disaster. We need to systematically examine our practices to root out those which threaten and corrode students' concepts of themselves as persons of worth, dignity, and capability.

Meeting the Needs of Students of Education:

The personal character of professional education also calls for maximum flexibility in the curriculum to meet the peculiar needs of students. For years our colleges have been preaching the need for teachers to adjust their practices to the individual needs of students. Yet, all too often our teachers college programs continue to operate on a directly contrary philosophy. Since selves are infinitely unique, programs designed to further professional becoming must allow for far more variations in speed and direction than we have been accustomed to. What could be more wasteful of time and energy than putting all students through the self-same program? Why should all courses be three hours, and why should everyone take the same ones? We behave as though all our students came to us with no previous learning or experience, an assumption which is patently false. If we do not possess the ingenuity to adjust our programs to the individual needs of our students, I think it would be better to stop advocating it for their practice.

Personally, I do not see any alternative to relying a great deal more upon self direction in our students. The information explosion has, for all time, settled any hope of being able to find a common curriculum for everyone. Our only hope is to help each individual to extract from the mass those portions most fitting for the satisfaction of his own needs and purposes on the one hand, and most appropriate for helping him carry out his role as an effective contributing citizen or teacher on the other. It seems to me that this is the only way in which we can hope to avoid the inefficiency of providing the student with either more or less than he needs. Even if it were not more efficient, however, self direction would still be desirable because self-directing teachers are the very product we are in business to produce. It is a habit that cannot be learned too early.

The Problem of Behavior Change

It is not enough for a teacher to know better. He must *behave* better. It is the business of a professional college to produce desirable changes in the behavior of its students. Now, logic would seem to suggest that if you want to change a person's behavior, you need to have him examine it, decide what he ought to do, then set about doing it. This is the approach we have taken to behavior change for generations. It is a product of the analytic method of dealing with problems which we have come to regard as the scientific method, and of course, whatever carries the mantle of science these days is practically sacrosanct. Such a direct attack upon behavior is also deeply rooted in the good old protestant ethic. People must *make* themselves behave even when they don't want to. Unfortunately, as it was once pointed out, this is one of those instances in which logic is only a systematic way of arriving at the wrong answer! The fact is, a direct attack on behavior is far less likely to produce results than we might think. Direct attacks on behavior are unlikely to get results because behavior is not cause, it is symptom. The behavior shown by an individual at any moment is only a product of what is going on within him. The causes of his behavior lie in his perceptions of himself and his world; especially in his beliefs, purposes, meanings, and values. When these change, behavior automatically changes. Without change in these internal perceptions attempts to change behavior directly are likely to be ineffective.

Ineffectiveness of Direct Attacks on Behavior Change:

There is a very widespread belief that self-analysis is an effective way to arrive at behavior change. Check lists and self-evaluation devices are in common use in many places. The fact of the matter is, however, that such a direct attack upon behavior seldom produces the changes we hope for. Attempts to help counselors and teachers improve their practice through the use of movies of themselves in action, for example, have proven quite disappointing. The reason for this seems to be that the self is learned from one's experience. Attempting to change it directly is like trying to lift oneself by his boot straps. I do not make myself more lovable, for example, by sitting around and thinking about my lovableness. To achieve this end it is necessary for me to think, not about me, but about others. As I learn to feel better about others, my behavior toward them is better, and they probably love me more. So, after a time, I may discover one day that I have become more lovable, but I did not get so by looking at me.

Changes in behavior by a direct attack upon the behavior are only effective so long as the behavior is not very important in the person's economy and can be held in clear figure in whatever situation he is involved in. The moment something occurs to take his attention off what he is doing, he is lost, and he falls back upon the truly important aspects of his being: the feelings, beliefs, and understandings acquired from his previous experience. So the young teacher who has learned a new method which does not fit his usual ways of working can probably carry it off so long as nothing upsets his aplomb. However, the moment an unforeseen problem arises or he must take his attention off what he is doing, he drops what he is pretending or trying to be and returns to what he is. I believe the preoccupation of our teachers college with this direct approach to affecting the behavior of teachers is a major reason why we have not been more successful in changing American education. Despite our most strenuous efforts to get young teachers to teach in the new and better ways, they continue to teach in the way they were taught instead of in the way we taught them to teach!

Educating for Instantaneous Professional Response:

It is characteristic of the helping professions that helpers, whether teachers, psychologists, counselors, social workers, or whatever, are required to behave *instantaneously* in response to their students, clients, and patients. The counselor must respond at once to his client's statement. The teacher must reply to the student's question. There will rarely be time for the helper to ask himself, What shall I say? The response must be instantaneous. It must also be good for the client. This is the nature of professional work in the helping fields.

How shall we be sure that instantaneous responses will be truly helpful? An analogy to a giant computer may help to understand the problem. The modern giant computer receives vast quantities of information fed to it from outside. It quickly combines this information with that already stored in its memory bank and provides appropriate answers with lightning speed. The answers provided by the computer are not a matter of accident, however. On the contrary, they represent the best answer possible from the data provided. What determines the kinds of answers produced is the program or formulas set in the machine in the first place. So it is with persons in the helping professions: the responses they make to the persons they work with are the product of the formulas within the helper. Adequate formulas provide more adequate behavior. Inadequate formulas create chaos and destruction.

From current perceptual theory, confirmed by our recent research, it appears that these human formulas are beliefs or personal meanings. Each of us behaves in terms of his beliefs. If I believe a man is honest I will trust him; if I do not, I behave quite differently. In similar fashion, what the teacher believes about people will make a world of difference in his behavior. The teacher who believes children are able can trust them. The teacher who does not believe they are able cannot behave so. Indeed, if he did he would be acting irresponsibly.

That people behave in terms of their beliefs is hardly news to most of us. We are keenly aware that that is true with respect to our own behavior. And as we look at our friends we quickly discover that their beliefs are so important that it becomes possible for us to predict their behavior with considerable accuracy. At the University of Florida, research into the perceptual organization of good and poor practitioners in the helping relationships has now extended to good and poor teachers, good and poor counselors, and good and poor Episcopal priests. So far we find good and poor practitioners different in their beliefs about the people they work with, about themselves, and about their own and society's purposes, and in the basic frame of reference with which they approach their problems. As a consequence of this research I am convinced that we have been looking in the wrong places for some of our answers to the problems of teacher education.

Focus on the Development of a Teacher's Beliefs, Values, and Personal Meaning:

Most of our teacher education programs in the past have attempted to deal with the problems of behavior change through the provision of information about teaching, attempts to teach students methods, or straightforward attempts to change students by examining, criticizing, and attempting to change behavior patterns. Occasionally this gets results, probably because the critical examination of behavior may involve an individual in an examination of his purposes and beliefs and so produce a change in his behavior. This is probably why our confidence that examination of behavior will change it is so widespread. Because it sometimes seems to work we are encouraged to do it more often in the vain hope that if we could only do it more intensely or more precisely, eventually we should be able to do it perfectly. Seeing the production of teachers as a problem in becoming, however, calls for a different emphasis upon the development of beliefs, values, purposes, and personal meanings instead of behavior. In our research on effective counselors, teachers, and Episcopal priests we found that we could not distinguish between good practitioners and poor ones on the basis of knowledge or methods. We did, however, find quite clear distinctions between good and poor practitioners when we looked at their beliefs about themselves, about other people, about their own and society's purposes, and about what was important in working with other people.

The problem of teacher education is not a question of making the student's self be. It is a problem of assisting the student to become. Above all, the effective professional worker must be authentic. The attempt to be what he is not creates confusion for everyone he has to deal with. The child in a classroom, for example, soon discovers what his teacher is really like. Even when his teacher is not the most pleasant person in the world the child is able to deal with him so long as he is genuine. If, however, the teacher insists that he is not what he seems, the child is confronted with an impossible dilemma. If he treats his teacher the way he knows the teacher is, the teacher will reject that. If he treats his teacher the way the teacher claims to be, the student cannot be authentic himself, but must do a job of skillful acting. Such acting is usually difficult to maintain for any period of time and sooner or later the relationship breaks down because it cannot be maintained on so artificial a level.

In the supervision of teachers, clinical psychologists, and counselors over the years, I find that I get best results by avoiding discussions of behavior and concentrating on students' beliefs, values, purposes, and understandings. I have learned *not* to say, Why did you do that? You should or should not have done that. This is what you should have done. Instead, I have learned to ask, How do you feel about John or Sally? How do you suppose it seems to them? What are you trying to do? What do you believe is the purpose of teaching or counseling? I believe that if we are to be more successful in the production of effective teachers it will be necessary to shift our emphasis from a direct attack upon behavior, which deals only with symptoms, to helping our students explore and discover personal meaning, the primary *causes* of behavior.

The Personal Discovery of Meaning

Learning, we understand from modern perceptual psychology, always consists of two aspects: one objective, the other subjective. The objective aspect has to do with events in the external world, the confrontation of new information or experience. This aspect of the problem can often be manipulated and controlled by some person other than the behaver. The subjective phase of the equation is the person's own personal discovery of the meaning of the information or experience to which he has been exposed. This part of the learning problem, of course, occurs inside the learner and is not open to direct manipulation by others. The basic principle of learning involved here may be stated as follows: ***Any information will affect a person's behavior only in the degree to which he has discovered the personal meaning of this information for him.***

We have generally done very well in education with the first phase of this problem. We have been quite ingenious in finding ways of gathering and presenting information to our students. More recently, we have added immensely to our skills in this direction through all the new gadgets made available to us by modern science for the manipulation and dissemination of information by television, teaching machines, computers, and programmed instruction. We have been far less successful, however, in aiding students in discovering the personal meaning of information we provide them so that they behave differently as a consequence of what they are taught. It is this aspect of the learning equation which determines whether or not information will find its way into the behavior of the individual. It is also the very heart of the problem of training a professional worker.

For years we have been approaching the problem objectively while the crucial question in the training of the professional worker is a subjective matter having to do with his personal discovery of how to use himself effectively. Indeed, we have often seemed to make such a fetish of objectivity that we have blinded ourselves from seeing the real problem. We have been teaching students about teaching instead of helping them to become teachers. We have been expert at giving information, but have barely scratched the surface of how to help students develop their personal meanings about these things, so that they would behave differently as a consequence of their teacher education.

Misunderstanding Between the Liberal Arts and Professional Schools:

It is the failure of many people to understand these two phases of the problem of learning which produces much of the misunderstanding between professional schools and schools of arts and sciences. It is often difficult for persons working in the basic disciplines of the arts and sciences, busy discovering and disseminating information, to understand the problem of the professional school: major emphasis must be concentrated, not upon the subject matter, but on the person of the learner and his discovery of the meaning of teaching. Indeed, the emphasis throughout our educational structure is so exclusively on the information acquisition aspects of learning that students coming to colleges of education are often bewildered by the shift in emphasis. Not finding the curriculum to which they are exposed loaded with new information, they often come to the conclusion that professional education isn't teaching them anything! Unfortunately, this confusion often extends to the faculties of colleges of education themselves.

From its earliest origins, education has emphasized the objective aspects of learning: the collection and communication of information. It was natural in times past for professional education, developed as an offspring of the subject-matter disciplines, to adopt the methods so successfully used in those disciplines. Perhaps because it is so much easier to gather and present information than it is to help students discover meaning, we have been so long preoccupied with this aspect of the learning equation. The organization and presentation of information can often be accomplished by the teacher without the cooperation of the learner. It is quick, simple, and direct. The discovery of meaning, on the other hand, goes on inside the student and so is not so handily manipulated.

Most of what goes on in our colleges is still operating in this tradition of emphasizing the objective aspect of the learning equation. Since it is only comparatively recently that we have begun to understand the subjective discovery of meaning phase of the learning problem, such a preoccupation was once excusable. Now that we know the importance of the meaning aspect, it is no longer acceptable. It is necessary that we find much better ways of implementing the meaning phase of the learning equation as quickly as possible. We need to find ways of injecting our new understandings into the blood stream of professional training programs with the least possible delay.

The distinction we have been making here between the objective and subjective aspects of learning means, among other things, that it is quite unlikely that we shall ever be able to overcome the breach which exists between colleges of education and those of liberal arts. It means we must give up our terrible need to be loved by our colleagues in other colleges. The things you need to know for the objective informational phases of learning will always be different from those required for the subjective meaning phases. So long as our colleagues in other colleges continue to evaluate us in terms of their own criteria they must always find us wanting. Indeed, if they do not, we will know for sure we are surely not doing our job!

Need for Subjective Emphasis in Professional Programs:

Most of the subject matter in our colleges of education is still organized in the objective tradition. To serve the purposes of professional becoming overhauling is needed to more effectively serve the subjective meaning orientation. For example, there is a vast difference between understanding *about* children and understanding a child. Most of our teaching about human growth and development serves the former function. Our courses in these subjects are primarily descriptive, aimed at teaching what children are like. The more crucial problem of helping a teacher understand children is largely left to accident. We assume that objective knowledge about child development or learning will automatically result in subjective personal meaning. This is an assumption we can no longer take for granted. A teachers college must consciously and carefully plan for the subjective outcome. The student teachers' experiences in child study must be specifically directed toward developing *sensitivity to people* rather than mere understanding *about* them.

Philosophy: Similar revolutions are called for in the other traditional subjects of the teachers college. In philosophy, for example, the goal must shift from the study of philosophies to the discovery of a workable personal philosophy, a pattern of beliefs capable of providing the student with guidelines for action as a professional worker. If it were true that study *about* philosophy would produce a person with a deep and personal one, our professors of philosophy would, without exception, be noted among our most outstanding teachers. As anyone knows, this state of affairs is far from the actual case. The philosophy students' need is a personal gestalt of consistent values and purposes. This can rarely be achieved in a lecture course. It calls for active participation and discussion by students unafraid to commit themselves to such a process.

Social Foundations: The social foundations program offered in our teachers colleges has been traditionally oriented toward looking at society and the school's role within it. Education for becoming calls for a more personal approach which will extend beyond information *about* the school and society, to beliefs and commitments with respect to these institutions. It must help the student discover his own personal role in the matter.

Methods: With respect to methods, efforts must extend beyond studying *about* methods. The study of methods must help each student find those most appropriate for him. To date, all research on methods leads us to the inescapable conclusion that there is no "good" or "right" method of teaching for a particular teacher or subject. Methods are intensely personal matters which, like the clothes we wear, must fit the teacher's character, purposes, and understandings. This calls for a cafeteria approach to methods in which the student is helped to select from the available stock those techniques most appropriate for who he is and what he is trying to do.

Research: In the field of educational research we have too long been teaching teachers *about* research. In fact, we have been so deeply enslaved by the objective aspects of research in recent years that we have separated research from teaching almost completely. Educational research has become a highly technical territory into which few teachers dare to tread. Worse still, they are frequently regarded with nothing but contempt by the new practitioners of magnificent objectivity. We have practically surrendered research to a group of highly proficient technicians expert at speaking to computers but often woefully incapable of communicating with teachers. If changes are to occur in education they must be accomplished by teachers. Programs which discourage teachers from trying research are self-destructive. We need a great rebirth of action research, a concept which enlists the active participation of persons responsible for running the show where the action is—in the classroom. The self as "instrument concept" calls for teachers who see themselves as active instruments of research. To achieve this end calls for considerable revision in our current approaches to research in our colleges.

In short, we have too long made the error of teaching our students *about* teaching. It is time we gave serious thought to the problem of becoming and the development of personal meaning.

Discovering Personal Meaning in Subject Matter:

Let it not be supposed that the importance of personal meaning applies only to the professional phases of teacher education. The discovery of personal meaning is the second half of the learning equation and cannot be ignored without serious damage to the teaching process *whatever* is being taught. It operates in intellectual learning as well as in emotional, social, aesthetic, or other types. Although my discussion here has dealt primarily with the personal, professional aspects of training, the importance of personal meaning is equally applicable to subject matter as well. Until the student has entered into some kind of interaction with his subject matter and has discovered some personal meaning in it, his teaching field is a flat and meaningless thing, lifeless and antiseptic. It is form without essence. It cannot even be communicated except in a rigid self-defeating fashion.

Structure: Recognizing that the provision of subject matter alone is insufficient to guarantee learning, Bruner and others have advocated the organization of content to emphasize principles, generalizations, and theories rather than isolated facts. Unfortunately, such an organization is still not enough, for meaning lies, not in the subject matter, but in the learner. Emphasizing structure organizes information and makes more available the essence of the discipline studied, but it still represents only the information phase of learning. The discovery of meaning must still occur in the student.

Nevertheless, the importance of structure is an important first step, for principles, generalizations, and theories certainly lend themselves more readily to the discovery of meaning than the accumulation of separate facts. Far too much of what we do in teaching betrays this preoccupation with details. We collect and cherish details, lecture about them, argue about them, test students on them, and generally behave as though they were really the important thing in a subject. Small wonder the students follow our lead and carefully stuff themselves with details in preparation for the examinations. This unholy emphasis upon details is one of the prices we pay for objective examinations. It is compounded further by the practice of grading on the curve which requires a distribution of students only attainable by testing them on details.

Principles: It is not enough for the student to simply confront the principle. Even when he can repeat it back to us on a test, it will not affect his behavior until he has discovered its personal meaning. The principle of the brotherhood of man has been with us for generations. We have read about it, preached about it, and sung about it, but for many it is only in recent years that its meaning has been sufficiently understood to find its way into expression in behavior.

A teacher education program truly committed to aiding its students in the discovery of meaning will need to examine its processes carefully with an eye to discovering the degree to which it contributes to that end. In most colleges the present organization and processes are a hangover from the liberal arts tradition out of which professional education originally grew. For the most part these programs are designed from an external frame of reference with a heavy emphasis upon subject matter and the learning of facts. A program truly oriented toward the problem of becoming will need to take a much stronger internal frame of reference and will be much more concerned with personal meanings than facts. This is by no means an easy transition; most of our procedures are currently oriented almost exclusively toward information dissemination.

Meaning: Many faculty people and practically all students who come to the college of education have been thoroughly brainwashed with the importance of information so that they believe no one is learning anything unless someone is telling him something new. Actually, some of the most important meanings any of us ever have, have nothing to do with new information. Rather they are learnings which occur as a consequence of a deeper and deeper exploration of the personal meaning of ideas we already possess. This discovery of meaning is the very essence of professional training, and it is time we examined our programs with care, using our modern understandings about the nature of meaning and how it comes about as criteria for judging the adequacy of our current practices. If we do this, I expect it will be necessary for us to greatly deemphasize some of our traditional techniques of lecture, recitation, examination, evaluation, et cetera. To fill these gaps we will need to find more adequate ways of assisting our students in the personal discovery of meaning. Fortunately, there has been a good deal of interest in procedures of this sort in recent years, and there is much we can learn to use and adapt, especially, I think, from the fields of sensitivity training, group discussion technique, group counseling, and the like. Many teacher educators have already been experimenting with these kinds of devices. I believe it is time we put a great deal more effort into exploring their possibilities.

Learning and Need

One of the most certain things we know about learning is that it occurs most efficiently when the learner has a need to know. Teachers in training are carefully taught that children learn best when they see a need for what is being taught; they are encouraged to spend much of their energies in helping children discover needs to know. Having taught its teachers this principle, most of our colleges thereafter behave as though the principle never existed. College courses, almost without exception, *assume* the existence of need in the student. Rare is the instructor who regards the creation of need as a part of his responsibility. More often than not the desire to learn is *expected* of students and they are soundly berated if they do not come to class with the need to know already in place. Few college instructors regard the creation of need as a significant part of their task. But the laws of learning are not suspended when they are ignored, or because they are inconvenient. The effect of need on learning exerts its influence for college students quite as inexorably as it does for second graders. The good teacher is not a mere purveyor of facts to people who want them. The genius of good teaching is the capacity to help students discover needs they never knew they had!

Coordinating Needs of Preservice Students:

If there is one place where the best we know about learning ought to be continuously in operation, surely it is in our teachers colleges. Unhappily, a very great deal of our teaching in these institutions operates with little or no relationship to the needs of students. The young people who come to us without experience in teaching are frequently taught the answers to problems they do not have yet! Most of them are enrolled in programs designed to teach them how to teach and are then put to work in an internship or practice teaching situation to try it out. This procedure neatly reverses the principle of need. Students find out what they need to know at the end of the program when their class work is over. What a waste!

Any teachers college professor who has ever had the experience of teaching the same course on campus to preservice students and off campus to in-service students can testify to the vast difference in these two groups. The preservice students have little or no idea of what is important. Consequently they study for the examinations and grades (artificial reasons in place of real ones). The needs they feel are important they waste tremendous amounts of time studying indiscriminately. In-service teachers are a different story. They know what is important from their own experience and take a much more hard-headed look at what they are being taught. Often, they do not do as well as the campus students on examinations which deal with the academic aspects. On the other hand, they are far more highly motivated, critical, and selective in their study.

A Problem Solving Approach to Teacher Education:

Learning occurs most efficiently when the student perceives a need to learn. This is a principle we cannot afford to overlook; at the same time it provides a criterion for examination of what goes on at our teachers colleges. We need to look sharply at our programs, asking ourselves these questions: Is this really needed? How can we help the students see that it is? Are we helping students learn what they need academic rather than professional. With no way of knowing what is to? How can we help them discover new needs relating to professional practice? We have too long relied upon artificial or imaginary needs:

learn it for the grade, the exam, the term paper, or learn it because I say so. It is time we used more ingenuity in helping students find real needs for learning, not just at the end of the program, but at every step of the way. It seems to me that such a goal requires a problem solving approach to professional training which puts students actively in touch with real problems concurrent with the academic aspects of training. This is what the college of medicine does with its laboratories, clinics, and the making of rounds. It is also an integral part of social work training and the training of counselors and psychotherapists. It is a shame to waste the internship by putting all the student's experience at the end of his program. The process of becoming calls for continous discovery of personal meaning from the very beginning of the neophyte teacher's experience.

I believe the young teacher ought to begin active contact with teaching from the first day he steps into the college. He ought to be discovering problems from firsthand experience. I would, therefore, take the time now spent on the internship* and spread it throughout the training program. I would begin the student's experience as a "teacher aid" by simply assigning him to a teacher to be helpful in whatever ways he could. As he moved along in the program I would increase his responsibility by making him a "teacher assistant." Later he would become a "teacher associate" and assume a considerable responsibility for what went on in the classroom to which he was assigned. Concurrent with all this experience I would provide him the academic information he needed and the variety of settings in which he might explore the meaning of his experience and the information he was getting. At the end of this experience I would graduate him from the teachers college and turn him over to the public schools, where he would spend his first year of teaching as a "probationer" under the supervision of a master teacher in the school system who would be released part-time for this service.

I feel quite certain some teacher educators will regard this treatment of the internship with dismay as it seems to be removing the most important aspect of the whole program from the control of the colleges. What I am advocating, however, does not lose this time for the college; it simply redistributes it through the whole program. This should be a welcome change for many colleges which now find their professional programs restricted by law or custom to a fixed number of hours in which the internship consumes anywhere from a third to two-thirds of the student's time.

Such a program as I have suggested does raise serious problems for colleges located in a small town or rural setting where opportunities for students to participate in the public schools is limited. It may be that we need to reconsider the location of our teachers colleges. A rural setting was quite satisfactory for a concept of preparation on a learn and try basis. It is difficult to see how such a location can be justified for a problem solving approach.

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* Note: The internship at the University of Florida is more like full-time student teaching than contracted full-time teaching internships.

Restructuring of Courses to Fit Emerging Professional Problems and Questions of Students:

For generations our colleges have been hamstrung by our traditional structure of courses, credits, and inviolate disciplinary lines. The concepts of organization once appropriate for the liberal arts college are a terrible impediment for a college seeking the flexibility required for an adequate professional program. They are especially hazardous for a problem solving approach, because professional problems do not fall neatly into three-hour packages. Quite the contrary. The problems students discover in the classroom are quite likely to involve every aspect of professional work, subject matter, methods, philosophy, purpose, social structure, administration, and human growth and development, not separately but simultaneously. To meet such needs, our traditional structure will simply not do. It will be necessary for us to develop programs in which students can explore whatever is needed to solve their problems and to provide instructors skilled in helping them do this across the whole spectrum of professional work. This calls for instructors in teacher education like the social work supervisor or the clinical professor in medicine, a person skilled in aiding students to discover meaning. Such instructors may be expert at a particular discipline. More likely, they will be persons of broad interest in professional education, especially skilled in the process of helping students to become. It is interesting that many of our colleges have already developed persons of this sort who supervise interns or teach general courses in curriculum. Unfortunately, they are usually forced into the background, having to yield to the prestige figures of the college, the experts in particular disciplines. It is time we gave these persons a firmer place in the teachers college structure and helped them develop explicitly the skills they have long been using implicitly. There will always be a place in the teachers college for the scholar and specialist. It is time, however, to recognize that the nature of his skills, while adequate for the scholarly information phase of teacher education, may not be appropriate for guiding the student in the problem solving experiences needed for becoming an effective professional worker.

Approaching teacher education as a problem in becoming poses a large number of questions and calls for considerable changes in some of our practices. When they are set down all at once they look like a very large order. But as I have traveled around the country in the last two or three years I have been struck by the fact that many programs are already moving piecemeal in these directions. A program here has dealt with this aspect, a program there with that one, usually in an attempt to solve some practical problem. On the other hand, out of the social sciences has come a new humanistic approach to the understanding of human behavior which throws new light on the problems of learning and becoming, some of which I have attempted to sketch in this discussion. What is needed now is to bring these two things together, the practical innovations and our new theoretical understandings, to provide the framework for a systematic analysis of the teacher education problem. This will not be easy, but I feel certain its rewards will be worth the effort.

Section V

Innovative Procedures and Practices in Supervision

If the developing cooperative ventures do not produce more competent and more effective teachers, then the efforts of teacher educators in designing these programs will be for naught.

HANS C. OLSEN

PART I

Innovation in Supervision Today

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This is a time of ferment in teacher education. Segments of the profession whose attention has been focussed elsewhere are becoming involved. Larger numbers of students are enrolling in teacher education programs. New technology is not only available but coming into more general use. The competence of classroom practitioners in local schools is being investigated by lay groups in all parts of the country. Research is making available more accurate and more useful information about teaching. Teacher organizations are pushing for a larger role in the general scheme of things. These are but a few of the factors upsetting the equilibrium in teacher education. The final bastion of the status quo, student teaching (and other portions of the laboratory phase), has increasingly come into the rocky realm of scrutiny and analysis, even change.

Eleven innovations are described in the latter portion of this section. Each merits close scrutiny, for it differs from the conventional approach to teacher education. Before presenting them, however, some general comments seem appropriate.

The Importance of Innovation

Innovation has almost become a cliche: often heard, far less frequently achieved. Talk and tinkering abound. It is easy to construct, present, and debate proposals. Implementation is of a different order; the number of "way out" innovative programs remains small. "New programs" and "unique approaches" receive high priority in professional publications. In a disappointingly large number of cases, however, examination reveals that the "new" and the "unique" are contained in revised terminology or *proposed* changes in practice rather than in different programs.

Despite the relative paucity of innovative approaches in teacher education, ample evidence of the trend toward collaboration exists;

representative samples and summaries of it may be found in earlier sections of this volume. Study of these descriptions makes clear that acceptance of the principle of cooperation requires that new practices, procedures, policies, structures, and roles be devised. Thus, innovation must, indeed, become the watchword in teacher education. Teacher educators (personnel from colleges, schools, state departments of education, professional organizations, and the federal government) stand on the threshhold. Unparalleled opportunity lies before them.

If, however, the developing cooperative ventures do not produce more competent and more effective teachers, then the efforts of teacher educators in designing these programs will be for naught. Change for the sake of change, because it is the thing to do or in order to keep up with the Joneses, is sheer waste: an activity bordering on idiocy in this time of ferment and opportunity. Erecting clear-cut, efficient administrative structures is certainly a step in the right direction; but simply developing arrangements of administrative convenience is not enough. The products of partnership programs must be superior to those turned out by present conventional ones. These teachers must be more rational and less emotional; more thinking and less mechanical; they must act more as professionals and less as technicians. Clearly, the innovations in teacher education must directly affect classroom practitioners and those in the laboratory phase of teacher education programs. Making changes in other portions of the program and hoping they in turn will lead to change at this basic level is not sufficient.

Collaboration develops most readily in relation to student teaching and other components of the laboratory phase of teacher education. Teacher educators working in this portion of the program make their most important contributions in the supervisory role. It is quite evident that the guidelines for those in this position, no matter which institution or agency they represent, are not clear.

The Nature of Supervising

Supervising consists of a highly complex set of behaviors, requiring special skills, understandings, and knowledge. Yet, when divested of the trappings, the cant, and the mystique that ordinarily surround it, supervising is nothing more nor less than teaching. Rather than attempting to establish two distinctly different forms of behavior, supervising and teaching, it is useful to think of supervising as a special type or subcategory of teaching. Viewing supervising in this way provides the basis for the conceptualization, or as LaGrone pointed out, the reconceptualization, of supervising, for everyone has a conception of supervising no matter how ill-defined or unsophisticated it may be. Accepting the notion that supervising is a form of teaching is a first step. It is a foundation upon which a rich and useful concept may be constructed.

Broadly speaking, supervising is undertaken for the purpose of helping the student teacher and the classroom teacher grow professionally as much and as rapidly as possible in the time available. The purpose of teaching of any kind is to bring about learning. The basic problem is to decide the direction of desirable growth, or what the teacher is to learn. This means that supervisors must know and agree on the behavior that the less sophisticated teachers must learn. Lack of such specific goals causes many difficulties. Slightly different or unclear goals are sources of disagreement and uncertainty. When this situation prevails, cooperation is imperiled.

The activities of supervisors must be designed to help teachers attain the goals that have been established. Supervising is essentially a problem solving activity: it is a diagnostic, decision making process. Many supervisors have found this to be an extremely useful model. Its power lies in the fact that it provides an unsurpassed frame that individual supervisors may easily use to scrutinize, analyze, revise, and refine their own supervisory practices. It forces a rational approach to supervising. Folklore and personal preference intuitively woven together will not stand up when examined in this framework.

Supervisors must work within the situations in which they find themselves, and no two situations are alike. This statement may appear to be vacuous, but it is not. Effective supervisors recognize and adjust their activities to fit changes in situations. Each newcomer to that setting alters it, each new thing learned creates a different situation, and each time attention is shifted from one goal to another the circumstances are changed. Among the other factors that must be taken into account are expectations, perceptions, abilities, skills, understandings, facilities, support, and time. Although there are other important factors that help establish the dimensions and structure of any situation, a consideration of those presented points up the fact that effective supervising—that which produces competent, effective teachers—cannot be a routine series of actions mechanically repeated over and over.

Supervisors must focus their attention and activities on the central matters of teaching. Recent research identifies and provides much more accurate and detailed knowledge about these central behaviors such as questioning, controlling, responding to questions, and so on. Too often supervisors have given most attention to peripheral matters such as dress, speech, gestures, and the like, to the detriment of the more central concerns. The products of the program, the classroom practitioners, tend to operate at relatively low levels of professional sophistication if supervisors do not carry them beyond this level.

Using the problem solving model for supervising, and remembering that supervising is a form of teaching, leads to two important and interesting conclusions. First, an apprenticeship system is most inappropriate for teacher education. Merely modeling behavior upon that of a "master teacher" is not the means for producing more than marginally adequate teachers. A student teaching program or internship based on this concept can only prepare teachers for the specific situation in which their apprenticeship was conducted. They meet difficulty when different situations are encountered, because the apprenticeship cannot prepare them for all problems they must meet. A broader view of the laboratory phase is necessary.

The second conclusion drawn from this concept of supervising is that forgetting the instructional function or making it subsidiary to evaluation imperils the total program. Devoting time and energy to evaluating and grading rather than instructing is easily done. The purpose of the laboratory phase of teacher education programs is to help teachers become more competent and effective than they were; that is, to change their behavior in certain specified ways. Evaluating and grading assumes that they already know. Instructing assumes that at this time they either do not know or cannot do. It further assumes that they can learn how, given appropriate help and guidance. Evaluating and grading cannot be ignored or eliminated, the outstanding must be recognized, and the incompetent must be weeded out. However, evaluating and marking must not be allowed to squeeze out instructing as the primary concern of supervisors.

The Dimensions of the Laboratory Phase of Teacher Education

For a great many people the laboratory phase and student teaching are synonymous. Their experience leads to the conclusion that, for all practical purposes, student teaching is the laboratory phase of teacher education. This restricted view has long been regarded as inadequate by leading teacher educators. They do not deny the importance of student teaching; rather, they see it as one component of the laboratory phase. Other components include prestudent teaching observation and participation experiences, an internship or other post-student teaching experiences, and continuing education for in-service teachers. It should be noted that these components form a continuum extending from early in the teacher education program through most of the teaching career of the practitioner. This arrangement indicates acceptance of the concept that a teacher can always refine his skill and be more competent; he never reaches and maintains the epitome. It gives particular importance to the collaborative ventures for the continuing education of teachers.

Teacher educators—personnel from colleges, schools, state departments of education, professional organizations, and the federal government—work in each of these components. This is especially true of those in the supervisory role; hence, the importance of cooperation and the development of partnership approaches. While the dividing line between preservice and in-service teacher education is very real today, it is an artificial boundary that may be overcome by using the continuum model.

The laboratory phase draws upon the entire range of content of teacher education. Content from the foundation areas of psychology, sociology, and philosophy, from the academic disciplines, and from pedagogy must inevitably be included. More practice of skills already learned and refined is not enough. Study, analysis, and innovation culminating in instructional improvement are mandatory.

Dangers to Guard Against

The rapid spread of cooperative ventures provides an unmatched opportunity for innovation in teacher education, particularly during the laboratory phase. The settings for, the structure of, and the strategies and practices employed in supervising preservice teachers and classroom practitioners may be altered and new approaches tested. Those who take the opportunity to innovate must grapple with several basic issues and problems that, unless resolved, can undermine and destroy collaboration and rigidify current approaches. These are among the more important:

1. It is easy to focus attention on one facet or component of a program and exclude the remainder from consideration. This often means that something is added or revised without making appropriate adjustments in the rest of the program. The danger is that the laboratory phase, and even the total teacher education program, will become a series of discrete, unconnected entities. Innovation may be stifled and collaboration honored more in breach than in practice; this is the current situation in all too many instances.
2. Danger resides in another common problem: that innovation may largely be a matter of semantic change. If supervisory practice and the experiences of teacher education students are not different because of the innovation, those who have devised the change may have engaged in an interesting exercise, but they have not improved teacher education. Teacher educators and the products of the program must behave differently from what they would had not the innovation been introduced.
3. How can the full resources of the cooperating institutions and agencies be brought to bear in teacher education in such a way that continued innovation is possible? This major problem arises from the fact that change in one part of the program requires modification in other portions of it (see #1). Policies, structures, and procedures are developed to insure a smoothly running program. Usually, however, innovation impedes the even flow of business. Unless innovation is sustained, a program becomes moribund and eventually collapses or must be resurrected in a major upheaval. The cooperative arrangements that develop must not only allow but encourage innovation without destroying themselves.
4. Another danger rests in a state of mind: that *the* answer to the problems of teacher education exists. No such panacea is presently available and probably never will be. Constant analysis, revision,

and refinement are necessary. Believing that cooperation and collaboration bring the magic of *the* way carries the fruits of disillusion. Teacher educators must be prepared for and seek new ways. Working together they must assume leadership in fostering continued updating of the programs, policies, procedures, and practices that are a part of their partnership ventures. The injection of new points of view, new content, new roles, and new approaches must be encouraged. Finding a nice safe niche can doom the teacher education program to mediocrity by restricting and outdating the experiences of those for whom it exists.

Descriptions of Innovative Procedures and Practices in Supervision:

The next portion of this section contains brief summary descriptions of recent innovations or developments that provide a basis for innovation in the laboratory phase of teacher education. These summaries were prepared for presentation at the Workshop-Symposium. While they reflect the individual perceptions and inclinations of the authors, each may be used both as an introduction to the topic and as a source of ideas for teacher educators.

The eleven topics included in this section were arbitrarily chosen as most current and most representative of present trends. The papers may be grouped under three headings: settings, structures, and practices. However, that, too, is arbitrary since many overlap these artificial boundaries. The authors are authorities, despite the disclaimers presented by some of them. All are experienced in the broad field of teacher education, have been involved in cooperative ventures, and are thoroughly acquainted with their topics both through experience in the school setting and as a result of scholarly investigation. Their contributions are a rich source of innovative ideas for the laboratory phase of teacher education.

PART II

Micro-Teaching: A New Framework For In-Service Education

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The micro-teaching structure is a scaled down teaching encounter in class size and class time which has been developed in the Stanford University Secondary Teacher Education Program. Class size is limited to one to five students and class time from five- to twenty-minute lessons. Micro-teaching can be used with or without videotape.

While micro-teaching was first developed for preliminary experience and practice in teaching and as a research vehicle to explore training effects under controlled conditions, the concept can be of service to experienced teachers as a means of gaining new information about their teaching in a relatively short time, and as a means of changing teacher perceptions of their own teaching behavior. Realistic approximations to classroom conditions allow predictions of subsequent classroom teaching to be made with a high degree of accuracy, for the students are reacting and evaluating as real students, not role playing. This constitutes a *real* teaching encounter, not one which is simulated; it is only reduced in terms of students and time.

Micro-teaching may therefore serve a dual purpose; it may be utilized in a diagnostic sense to ascertain specific problems in presenting curriculum, and it may be used in an evaluative sense to rate total performance through the use of immediate student feedback. Previous experiments have shown that *student* ratings of teacher performance are more stable than other types of evaluation.

Experienced teachers may gain new insights through adaptation of the micro-teaching model. Under the present framework, if a teacher wishes to try a new approach in a particular lesson, he must wait until the following year to test alternatives to that lesson. In micro-teaching, the teacher can experiment with several alternatives with a limited number of students each time, with the opportunity for immediate evaluation and additional trials. Following this limited application, the plan can then be presented to the classroom. In this way, teachers may experiment with new methods and new content without the risk of defeating student learning and with much more satisfactory timing.

The micro-teaching clinic is an effective stimulus for the improvement of teacher performance after a performance plateau is reached in early tenure. The most effective teachers attain a high level of performance early in their careers. Unfortunately, they rarely have the stimulus to further increase their competence. Providing them with an opportunity to try new ideas easily and without risk to student learning can be an important asset to professional development.

The uses of micro-teaching appropriate for in-service situations follow.

The Teach-Reteach Pattern

By using a teach-reteach model, a teacher can use the experience of teaching a lesson to an initial group of students to make changes which can be immediately incorporated and taught to a different group of students for comparative evaluation. The scaled down nature of the micro-lesson makes such repetitions feasible and economical. By using the teach-reteach pattern, specific teaching skills can better be evaluated; content can be tested with one teacher practicing a new lesson while the rest of the department uses this lesson as a basis for critique and suggested alternatives. On the reteach, the experienced teacher can test new ideas and methods determined by student reaction and departmental suggestions, thereby improving both the quality of content and mode of presentation.

Micro-Teaching as a Trial Framework for Team Presentations

Groups of teachers can experiment together with new techniques in content or mode of presentation. Several teachers from a given department can teach while the rest of the department uses their presentation for purposes of evaluation. Perhaps several departments might expand this experiment as a means for developing interdisciplinary curricula.

Micro-Teaching as a Site for Trial of Instructional Level

It is often difficult to predict the instructional level of materials. Even the most experienced teacher can make serious misjudgments about student experience or maturity required to learn a given set of materials. In some instances this will require the alteration of the lesson materials. In other circumstances the lesson can be taught at another level as indicated. In Jefferson County, Colorado, a lesson was developed for fifth- and sixth-grade students in science. In a trial of this lesson in a micro-teaching situation, it was discovered that second-grade students caught on to this lesson faster than did older students. Micro-teaching provides good opportunity for such quick comparisons. Obviously, there remained many questions concerning why and under what circumstances the results would have differed. These questions could also be tested quickly in the micro-teaching structure where immediate feedback is available, and the conditions could be altered easily as desired.

Micro-Teaching for Pre-employment Prediction

Micro-teaching can serve as a framework for selecting or rating experienced teachers seeking employment. An evaluation committee could rate the teacher under "live" conditions instead of relying solely on recommendations or grade-point average. This concept can be extended to include evaluation of current employees for possible promotion. Under the present system, teachers are observed once or twice a year and given a rating form or written recommendation which signifies competence. With the use of micro-teaching, teachers can be observed frequently for brief durations of time, under controlled conditions. With micro-teaching as a source of evaluative evidence, new criteria for employment performance can be developed. For example, it might be more noteworthy to judge how much a potential teacher will be able to improve as a result of in-service supervision than to assess current performance. Also as we learn to differentiate teaching roles, micro-teaching situations can be devised to provide practice and evaluation of specific competences.

Micro-Teaching to Train Supervisors

By focussing on specific techniques desired for experienced teachers, supervisors can identify the necessary variables in training teachers to improve their teaching behavior. The beginning teacher, for example, is usually observed one full class period followed by a teacher conference. The new teacher receives a list of suggested changes, but the supervisor has no way to test the results of the conference since there is typically no effort to evaluate the application of supervisory suggestions until months later, with different conditions in student reaction, materials, or grade level. No one ever *knows* the results of supervision.

With micro-teaching, a beginning teacher is observed for a brief lesson followed by a conference followed by another observation. During the conference, the trainee must absorb both the students' and the supervisor's suggestions for improvement. During the reteach, the supervisor can immediately evaluate the teacher's progress and understanding. All instruction and evaluation occurs within a relatively short period. Experiments have indicated that a teacher should not be given more than one or two specific points to concern himself with during any one supervisory sequence.

There are many facets of supervision that can be studied using the micro model: testing and looking at alternatives for supervision, varying the time and length of visits, letting teachers select the time for supervision, experimenting with the concept that the quality of supervision improves with a reduction in the number of conference suggestions, experimenting with or without videotape, studying and enumerating the skills of teaching (identifying specific training protocols), using new materials, distinguishing between behavioral objectives and pious hopes, improving the ability to diagnose and state behavioral objectives, and developing instructional techniques.

Micro-Teaching for Continuing the Supervision and Evaluation of Beginning Teachers

This model lends itself to intensive supervision, immediate critique, and opportunities to repeat the practice session if necessary. Micro-teaching simplifies the complexities of teaching by isolating specific variables in the total teaching act which can be identified and therefore manipulated. It also provides greater control over practice in a wide range of teaching situations, in a variety of pupil types and class compositions, and in the possible variation in amount of practice according to individual needs. Micro-teaching increases the economy of supervision by increasing the amount of practice possible within a limited period of time, requiring fewer facilities and pupils. It also anticipates new alternatives in evaluation by providing good records of teaching performance at periodic intervals under standard conditions and permitting several judges to evaluate and reevaluate a single performance.

Micro-teaching can facilitate curriculum planning. If the curriculum committee is working during the summer, then the micro-classes should be utilized during the summer. Students could be hired and paid out of regular district funds as part of the cost of curriculum development. This would provide preclass trials of materials with the opportunity for trying and testing many alternatives.

If the curriculum committee is working on planning development during the regular school year, then micro-teaching should be used a few days before a teacher would normally be teaching the lesson. This would be particularly useful for evaluation in team teaching situations. Teachers could use their own students for evaluation purposes, but on each occasion teachers should select different students from their classes for trial runs. This provides the necessary random sampling and does not unduly affect the learning of any one student. Great variety is possible with only a few students.

The micro-teaching model can be used as a part of teacher workshops. The model can be adapted at any time during the workshops. Students could be selected on a voluntary basis or hired. The important thing to remember is that adaptation of micro-teaching does *not* take many students or complex logistics.

Micro-teaching successfully facilitates maximum flexibility in learning how to *use* new curriculum, in learning how to *evaluate* curriculum and performance, and as a *selection* and *prediction* device. Micro-teaching lends itself well to experimentation with practice and evaluation of several techniques: the teach-reteach pattern offers the opportunity for immediate student reaction and feedback; team presentations can be tested on a limited scale before postulation to the class; the model can be adapted at different grade levels; a micro-teaching situation can provide information for determining the level where a lesson might be most appropriately taught; preemployment and employment predictions and ratings can be evaluated from several points of view; training techniques can be developed for supervisors; continued supervision and evaluation of beginning teachers can be increased.

Micro-teaching offers the opportunity for new insights and perceptions of teaching behavior in presentation and evaluation techniques. The model can be adapted to local needs in testing both immediate and long-range goals in curriculum planning. Micro-teaching holds a kaleidoscope of opportunities for rethinking the basis of in-service education.

PART III

Simulation Techniques in Teacher Education

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Simulation techniques are of interest to teacher educators not only as a tool for research but also as a means of enriching, supplementing, and replacing inadequate aspects of laboratory experience. They offer an opportunity for the higher education institution to do better what it can do best—abstracting, generalizing, and foundation-building. They achieve their maximum potential in prestudent teaching-learning experiences and may become a new kind of demonstration laboratory prior to student teaching.*

Laboratory experience in the schools has been encountering increasing problems. School teachers are oriented toward teaching children rather than young adults. Their responsibility has been first to children, second to the school system, and a poor third to the college student. The college instructor's responsibility has been first to the student, second to the college, and lastly to the children. The college student's role and responsibility has been divided between that of a teacher in the school and that of a student in a college environment with its social climate. Further, prestudent teaching laboratory experiences of an excellent quality have become increasingly difficult to provide as top quality teachers have been absorbed into the increasing ranks of supervisors and curriculum workers, as well as being more fully utilized in expanded student teaching programs. A further limitation on laboratory experience has been the increasing concern among school people for public relations. Parents, feeling the urgency for excellence in learning and teaching, have expressed opposition to the extensive use of partially prepared and inexperienced college students in the classroom on anything more than an observing basis. School administrators have reacted by curtailing the number of hours per day and/or the number of weeks per year during which a cooperating teacher may have a student observer, participant, assistant, or teacher.

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* In Section I Perdew defined simulation as "activities which are similar to teaching and observing, but which are not, in fact, carried on in the regular classroom." This may involve "the use of 'new' media such as audio- or videotapes of teaching situations, intermittent photography, and micro-teaching with video playback." It may a'so include "more traditional approaches such as the college student teaching his fellow students as if they were high school pupils."

Issues which arise in the introduction or expansion of simulation techniques, particularly when they involve the use of public school facilities, or personnel, are listed below.

Control: Who shall decide the what and when of simulation? If a videotape recorder is to be brought into the classroom, who shall choose the situation to be recorded? What limitations, if any, shall be placed upon later utilization of such tapes: limitations of time, place, and audience?

Finance: Who shall bear the necessary cost of equipment and services incidental to the use of simulation techniques? Shall school teachers or pupils who are involved be paid, particularly if there is to be extensive use?

Quality: Since an improvement in the quality of prestudent teaching-learning experiences is the objective, how shall excellence be achieved, and what are the criteria of excellence in these situations?

Selection: What kinds of experiences can best be simulated? What kinds of experiences are better simulated than real?

Utilization: How can we use media with which we are remarkably unfamiliar, such as videotape and computers? How can we build a partnership with media people so that educational values can be fully achieved and media potentialities fully drawn upon?

Evaluation: What criteria shall be applied to determine the extent to which the simulation techniques are achieving our purposes?

PART IV

Analysis Techniques and Teaching

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In the past fifteen years, the interest shown in the analysis of teaching category systems as research and teaching tools has increased tremendously. There are now quite a number of category systems for analyzing verbal interaction in the classroom. One of the best known and increasingly used systems is interaction analysis. This technique, developed by Ned Flanders, refers to a system for recording and analyzing classroom verbal behavior.[1]

Use of Interaction Analysis in Teacher Education and Supervision[2]

It appears that interaction analysis is a valid measure of teacher behavior in the sense that interaction patterns are related to the attitudes, perceptions, and achievement of children. Interaction analysis can, therefore, be seen as a useful technique for gathering data in the classroom.

The major potential of interaction analysis and other systematic observational procedures is in the field of teacher education and supervision. Research on teaching can be made personally meaningful for the teacher when he has a tool he can use to study his own teaching.

Most of those who have used interaction analysis in supervision make the following assumptions: (a) a teacher must have the desire to improve and be willing to change his behavior; (b) a climate of support for the teacher must exist within the school; (c) a system which objectively describes teacher behavior and can be used for feedback must be available; and (d) the teacher needs to experiment with and practice various teaching behaviors so that appropriate behaviors can be learned.

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[1] Amidon, Edmund J. *Interaction Analysis: Recent Developments.* Paper delivered at American Educational Research Association, 1966. Philadelphia: Temple University. (Mimeo.)

[2] Amidon, Edmund J. *Interaction Analysis: Background, Rationale, and Application to the Improvement of Instruction.* Paper presented at Administration Institute on the Process of Instruction, Queens College. Philadelphia: Temple University. Undated. (Mimeo.)

Development of Interaction Analysis as an Observational Tool[3]

Interaction analysis was developed and refined by Flanders in the early 1950's. The early research on interaction analysis was designed to relate children's attitudes to patterns of teacher behavior. Flanders found that pupils of teachers who were observed to be indirect had more positive attitudes than pupils of teachers who were perceived by observers to be direct. These findings indicated that pupils of indirect teachers were more interested in subject matter and liked the methods used by their teachers better than students of direct teachers.[4, 5, 6]

The results of this early research support the validity of interaction analysis as a procedure for predicting the general attitudes of children in a particular classroom.

The next research effort undertaken by Flanders and his associates was designed to determine the relationship between teacher behavior and student achievement. Several large studies were conducted both in a controlled laboratory setting and in normal classroom situations. All of these studies were carried out at the junior high school level and involved the teaching of social studies and mathematics.

In the first of these studies Amidon and Flanders[7] found that dependent-prone eighth grade students who were taught geometry by indirect teaching methods learned more than dependent-prone children taught by direct methods.

In a large scale study, Flanders[8,9] isolated, for purposes of analysis, junior high school teachers whose pupils learned the most and the least after a two-week experimental program in social studies or mathematics. Teachers of the higher achieving classes were found to differ from teachers of the lower achieving classes in the following ways: (a) they used five to six times as much acceptance of student ideas and encouragement of student ideas; (b) they used five to six times less direction and criticism of student behavior; (c) they talked ten percent less; and (d) they encouraged two to three times as much student initiated talk.

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[3] Amidon, Edmund J. *Using Interaction Analysis at Temple University.* Paper presented at Conference on the Implications of Recent Research on Teaching for *Teacher Education,* Rochester, New York, 1966. Philadelphia: Temple University. (Mimeo.)

[4] Amidon, Edmund. "The Observational Technique of Interaction Analysis Applied to the Classroom: Procedures and Limitations." Paper read at the annual meeting of The American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois, February 1963.

[5] Amidon, Edmund, and Flanders, Ned A. *The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom.* Minneapolis: Paul S. Amidon and Associates, 1963.

[6] Flanders, Ned A. *Teacher Influence, Pupil Attitudes and Achievement.* Prepublication, Cooperative Research Monograph, Cooperative Research Project No. 397, U.S. Office of Education, 1962.

[7] Amidon, Edmund, and Flanders, Ned A. "The Effects of Direct and Indirect Teacher Influence on Dependent-prone Students Learning Geometry." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 52:286-91; 1961.

[8] Amidon and Flanders, op cit.

[9] Flanders, *op. cit.*

Similar results to those found by Flanders between teachers of high achieving pupils and those of low achieving pupils were found by Amidon and Giammatteo when they compared thirty superior teachers with one hundred fifty randomly selected teachers in elementary schools. The thirty superior teachers were nominated by their superiors and administrators.[10]

Since all of this research appeared to have implications for teacher education, Flanders instituted an in-service program in which interaction analysis was taught as an observational tool. The in-service program was able to effect observable changes in teacher patterns of verbal behavior. In general, at the end of the experimental in-service program, these teachers evidenced more encouraging and accepting behavior and were less critical and more indirect than they had been at the beginning of the experiment.[11]

Kirk conducted a study with student teachers in elementary education in which he taught interaction analysis to an experimental group and compared this group with student teachers who had no interaction analysis. He found that the experimental group talked less, had more pupil initiated talk, and more often accepted pupil ideas than student teachers in the control group.[12] Zahn found that student teachers who learned interaction analysis developed more positive attitudes toward student teaching than did a control group of student teachers who were not taught interaction analysis.[13]

Little, if any, systematic research has been done on the training of supervising teachers to supervise student teachers. However, the recent work of Medley and Mitzel[14] and Zahn[15] does suggest that there is a relationship between the behavior and attitudes of supervising teachers and growth in student teaching. While they found that the effect of the college supervisor on the student teacher was slight, the influence of the supervising teacher and the classroom situation appeared to be great. These are fertile areas for further research.

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[10] Amidon, Edmund, and Giammatteo, Michael. "The Verbal Behavior of Superior Teachers." *The Elementary School Journal* 65:283-5; February 1965.

[11] Flanders, Ned A. and others. *Helping Teachers Change Their Behavior.* A monograph made possible by two grants from the U.S. Office of Education Project Numbers 1721012 and 7-32-0560-171.1., The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, April 1963.

[12] Kirk, J. "The Effects of Teaching the Minnesota System of Interaction Analysis on the Behavior of Student Teachers." Doctor's Thesis. Philadelphia: Temple University, 1964.

[13] Zahn, R. "The Effect of Cooperating Teacher Attitudes on the Attitudes of Student Teachers." Glassboro, New Jersey: Glassboro State College, 1964. (Unpublished.)

[14] Medley, D. M., and Mitzel, H. "Measured Changes in Student-Teaching Behavior." *Improvement of Student Teaching.* Edited by H. Schueler, M. Gold, and H. Mitzel. Hunter College of the City University of New York; Project 730035, Educational Media Branch of the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

[15] Zahn, op cit.

Interaction Analysis in Student Teaching[16]

Research underway at Temple University uses interaction analysis for recording, categorizing, and tabulating verbal teaching behavior into a meaningful pattern for both student teachers and supervising teachers. The research conducted thus far suggests such positive effects on teaching behavior as (a) the student teacher talks less, and pupils talk more; (b) student teachers develop more skill in the use of teaching questions; and (c) more pupil creativity is observed. More important, the research indicates rather clearly that student teachers, as well as supervising teachers, develop new insights into the teaching act and new ability to look more objectively at their own teaching behavior.

To achieve these results, student teachers and supervising teachers both must be taught the rationale and terminology of the system to be used so that they "speak the same language." Skill sessions are needed so that student teachers are helped to make use of the analysis skill to move in the direction desired for improvement. It is not enough for the student teacher to know that he is behaving in too "direct" a manner; he must also be helped to adopt new approaches to his teaching which are more "accepting" and "encouraging" to his pupils.

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[16] Tabarlet, B. E. *Report of Study Group X: Analysis Techniques and Teaching.* Unpublished notes from AST-AACTE Summer Workshop-Symposium, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 1966.

PART V

Analytical Conference for Supervisors

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One of the major tasks of those who prepare teachers is helping the beginner to improve his teaching behavior. The procedure most often used is to observe the teaching of the student teacher and then to discuss his performance with him in a conference situation. Very little is known about the nature of this individualized teaching of student teachers, or about the relationship which may exist between the conference discussion and subsequent teaching behavior.

The student may, in fact, have considerable difficulty in accepting the supervisor's interpretation of his teaching behavior. This is especially true when the college supervisor makes only relatively infrequent visits to the classroom and cannot be fully aware of many of the factors which operate in the particular situation. Even greater difficulty may be experienced, however, when the student attempts to act on the supervisor's suggestions without a clear conception of their implications for specific behavior or without a firm conviction that the recommended procedures are possible or appropriate in the particular situation.

The individualized teaching which takes place in the supervisory conference tends to rely upon giving general rather than specific help, and upon the subjective rather than the objective analysis of performance by student teachers. Emphasis tends to be upon emotional climate in the classroom, on rapport between pupils and student teachers, and on personality factors. Desirable as these emphases are, they have often been disproportionate in relation to other dimensions of the teaching-learning situation. That practice can be justifiably so characterized is not due to unwillingness nor to lack of concern in those who work with student teachers. It is clearly due to lack of knowledge of how to work with student teachers on some important dimension of their teaching.

One such dimension is the verbal teaching behavior of the student teacher, and recent research has begun to provide tools for the analysis of such behavior. The use of a system of analysis during supervisory conferences can substantially change their character and effectiveness. Preliminary results from a study now in progress indicate that typical supervisory conferences are devoted largely to descriptive discussions of students' teaching, with somewhat less than one-third of the supervisor's talk classified as focussing or prescriptive behavior. When a system of analysis was used, however, the descriptive category dropped to less than one-half of the total, and somewhat more than a third of the supervisor's talk involved helping the student to focus on specific aspects of his own behavior.

A similar analysis of the substantive areas discussed by the supervisor in a conference with the student teacher revealed that about one-third of the talk was devoted to the teaching behavior of the student teacher in the typical conference, while in the conference concentrated on an analysis of teaching, more than two-thirds of the discussion was centered on such behavior. If the purpose of conferences is to help the student to improve his teaching behavior, it seems evident that the use of a system for analyzing such behavior can have a significant influence.

A major difficulty in using a system of analysis in supervisory conferences has been the complexity of the systems which have been developed for research purposes and the difficulties of training supervisors and student teachers in their use. Systems which can be learned and used within a reasonable time are being developed. Elements from several systems may also be adapted to any one situation.

Electronic devices are being perfected which make it comparatively easy to record verbal and non-verbal teaching behavior as it occurs in the regular classroom. Kinescopes, tape recordings, and 8mm film can provide the basis for a supervisory conference focussed on the student's teaching behavior. An analysis of questions asked, of level of cognitive activity induced, of proportion of pupil and teacher talk, or of distribution of pupil participation becomes possible. Through careful analysis of present practice the student is led to make commitments to changed behavior. He is then helped to explore the implications of his commitment and given help in designing the most effective means of achieving the desired ends. Subsequent class sessions provide evidence of the extent to which the planned behavior was carried out. Future conferences continue the analysis and provide for increasingly appropriate commitments.

If the student teaching experience is to reach its full potential as a means of providing the neophyte teacher with an opportunity to learn from experience, improved means must be found to enable him to achieve the desired learning. One productive direction for practice and research would seem to be the systematic analysis of teaching behavior during the planned supervisory conference.

PART VI

The Building Approach to Student Teaching

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The building approach to student teaching is a flexible program that will provide an individualized student teaching experience for each prospective teacher. It is basically a form of team supervision that utilizes the full resources of a school staff in conjunction with the supervising personnel from the college. The building approach is a truly cooperative school-college partnership with a close professional relationship that includes cooperative planning of structure, policies, placement, selection of supervising teachers, supervision, and evaluation. It is designed to provide the maximum amount of individualization of the student teaching experience. The pattern which has emerged is one that insures continuity despite changes in personnel. Thus far, only elementary school student teachers have been included in the building approach.

The building approach to student teaching has been developed within the framework and principles that are prerequisites to the center approach to student teaching. Thus, it is under the general guidance of a coordinating group, called the Teaching Campus Coordinating Council. This Council is responsible for the general policies and operation of the center. The membership of this Council includes a college advisor (a graduate faculty member), the school advisor (the director or coordinator of elementary education), the college supervisors, and the principals of the elementary schools in which student teachers are placed.

The Council meets quarterly and at the call of the chairman who is selected by the Council members from among the principals.

Functioning under the general guidance of the Council are the Building Supervisory Teams. Each Building Supervisory Team includes the principal of that particular elementary school, the college advisor, the school advisor, the college supervisors, and the teachers in that building who at that particular time are supervising student teachers. The Building Supervisory Teams determine student teaching policy consistent with the Coordinating Council policy for the entire center.

In the building approach student teachers are assigned to a building rather than to a supervising teacher. Assignment within the building is determined by the Building Supervisory Team. This Team, under the chairmanship of the principal, meets four times each quarter (more frequently if needed) to evaluate the professional growth of each student teacher and plan appropriate experiences to promote further growth.

All of the members of the staff in a building are encouraged to make their particular professional strengths and skills available to the student teaching program. With the full resources of the staff available to provide the kinds of experiences that will enable each student to develop his potential to the maximum, the Building Supervisory Team can exercise much latitude in designing the experience of a particular student teacher. A student teacher may remain with one supervising teacher in one classroom in the conventional manner for his entire student teaching experience; he may remain with one teacher for part of the day and work with one or more other teachers for the remainder of the day; another may work in a team teaching situation; while still other students may have relatively short periods of experience with special teachers. The progress of each student teacher and his needs as seen by the Building Team determine the kinds of experience which will be scheduled.

In this approach to student teaching, the college supervisor observes the student teacher throughout the quarter, working directly with the student teacher and the teacher who is in the role of supervising teacher at any particular time. His analyses of observed behavior and those of the supervising teacher are shared with the members of the Building Supervisory Team as they meet to assess areas of strength and weakness and to determine those experiences deemed best for each student teacher.

The Building Supervisory Team not only evaluates the progress of each of the student teachers in the building periodically, but is also responsible for the final evaluation. The final meeting each quarter results in a written, narrative evaluation for each student that is a candid picture of the level of his achievement and teaching skill in classroom situations as seen from the several vantage points represented on the Building Team.

The following points are emerging as characteristics of the building approach as it matures.

A continuous, flexible, and individual program is insured for each student.

A much greater variety of experiences is available to enrich and give depth to the student teaching program of each student.

The role and responsibility of each of the team participants are becoming clarified. This is particularly true for the principal whose role is unique in this approach.

With the complete involvement of a building staff, a greater commitment to teacher education is exhibited.

Building Supervisory Team meetings hold great potential for in-service education.

The depth and quality of analysis of the teaching act is becoming appreciably more professional.

College personnel are becoming more involved in the public schools in other ways than in the student teaching program.

Public school personnel are becoming more involved in the programs of the college.

The building approach to student teaching is certainly not the solution to all of the problems inherent in student teaching. However, it seems to be a way in which school and college personnel can cooperatively work together to provide a more effective and appropriate program for student teachers.

PART VII

Team Supervision

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From the point of view of school-university partnerships in supervision, this decade may well be called the soaring sixties. Videotape recording, computer analysis of data, and the beginnings of a theory of supervision have combined to create new and exciting possibilities for classroom supervision. The spread of team teaching and the increasing pressure for modern curricula and teaching methods have resulted in a dramatically increased demand for a quantity and quality of classroom supervision surpassing what most school districts and universities have traditionally provided. Team supervision is one way in which that demand can be and is being met.

Quite naturally, innovations in classroom supervision have appeared first in programs for preparing new teachers, in school systems that have been reorganized to offer team teaching or nongraded classes, and in schools and universities that have become partners in research on teaching. Let us see how team supervision can make a useful contribution in each of these areas.

The preparation of new teachers can be accomplished in a great many ways, some undoubtedly superior to others. No matter how this preparation is achieved, one of the major goals of the teacher education program is that the new teacher develop a professional identity. He must come to think of himself as a teacher, not merely as a student of teaching. Therefore, most such programs emphasize student teaching as a means of developing professional identity. The chief danger in student teaching is that the teacher may learn to teach badly rather than well. Consequently, more supervision is provided at this stage of his teaching career than he is likely to receive at any other time.

Supervision of beginning teachers is extremely difficult to do well for several reasons. First, there is no general agreement concerning what is good teaching and what is not. Second, the changes a student must make in developing a professional identity often require major adjustments in the teacher's perception of himself as a person and in his perception of the effects of his actions on other people. Third, the new teacher is usually ignorant of so many things that are important in teaching that he tends to be overwhelmed by the number of things to be learned all at once when he begins to teach. He is likely to become dependent on the college supervisor, master teacher, or supervising teacher for suggestions and for evaluations of his progress. Such dependence interferes with the new teacher's development of skills in self-evaluation and in self-direction in teaching.

Team supervision can make a contribution to the removal of each of these obstacles. When more than one person is involved in supervision of the new teacher, different opinions of what constitutes good teaching can be discussed more freely than when only one person supervises. If the new teacher becomes a part of a supervision team that works with another new teacher, he becomes more aware of the adjustments in perception that are called for in new teachers and may increase his motivation to make adjustments in his own perceptions. When he sees that other new teachers share many of his problems and face other problems he has already solved or been immune to, he may learn to accept his successes and failures more realistically. By observing other teachers as a member of a supervision team, the new teacher has opportunities to develop skills in observation and analysis of teaching. These skills will be useful to him when he discusses his own teaching with members of a supervision team. As the new teacher learns some of the supervisor's skills in the analysis of teaching he prepares himself to enter the dialogue of supervision as a colleague rather than as an inferior. Thus, he assumes more responsibility for the analysis of his own teaching and for planning improvement in his teaching, and he becomes more autonomous and better able to evaluate critically the suggestions offered by the supervision team.

When school systems are reorganized to offer team teaching or nongraded classes, even the experienced teachers need additional training and supervision. Team teaching, by its very structure, suggests possibilities for team supervision. In team teaching the responsibility for planning, instruction, and evaluation is closely shared by a group of teachers or by a group of teachers and a supervisory team leader. It is logical that each member of the team share in the responsibility for supervision of the work of the entire team.

In a nongraded organization there is likely to be much movement of pupils among groups based on individual needs and achievements. Consequently, there is likely to be a greater need for joint planning and joint evaluation in a nongraded organization than in a graded organization. Team supervision is a logical structure for supervision whenever teachers plan and evaluate together. It can be especially helpful when teachers are learning new roles.

Few teachers are prepared to conduct research in their classrooms. Only a minority of teachers can interpret and evaluate research satisfactorily. Unfortunately, there are even many supervisors who lack understanding of an experience in educational research. Because team supervision provides for role specialization among the team members, it may be possible to include on every supervision team at least one member who is competent to conduct, interpret, and evaluate educational research in such a way that the research will be of real benefit to teachers with whom the supervision team works.

PART VIII

The Clinical Professor and Joint Appointments

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The purpose of this presentation is to examine the concepts of clinical professor and joint appointments in the context of cooperative school-college ventures. Specifically, it is designed to raise questions and issues. The topic will be approached from two directions: the teacher education program and the organizational position.

Teacher Education

One way to bring joint appointments into focus is to view them from the perspective of institutional responsibilities for the education of the teacher. Much of the professional literature during the past decade has been devoted to the idea that the preparation of teachers is a joint responsibility of the college and the public schools. Unfortunately, in many cases the acceptance of joint responsibility has been more verbal than actual. At least part of the difficult arises from the meaning given to the concept of "joint responsibility."

Robert Bush[16] has separated the teacher education program into the following components: (a) general, liberal education; (b) specialized knowledge in a particular subject-matter discipline; (c) relevant knowledge from behavioral sciences; (d) relevant knowledge from the humanities and sciences; (e) application to role of school in society; (f) educational applications of behavioral sciences; (g) educational application to school curriculum and method; and (h) practice. Items (e), (f), and (g) are normally considered the professional education phase of the teacher's preparation. During this phase he is developing professional attitudes, acquiring knowledge needed for making teaching decisions, and identifying appropriate teaching behaviors. The teacher draws upon all aspects of his preparatory program during the period of practice, synthesizing them as he attempts to develop the highest degree of skill possible. Regarding practice (Item h) Bush states:

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[16] Bush, Robert N. "A Schema for Teacher Education." *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal.* (Edited by Elmer R. Smith) 1962. pp. 183-95.

> Here in practice the embryo teacher, under the direct and continuing supervision of experienced masters, begins to teach, to apply what he has learned. In the beginning, this practice takes place mainly under the aegis of the college and university, and under as nearly ideal conditions as possible. Gradually as the neophyte's skill becomes more established, he moves his practice out into the regular arena of school life in the community. Over a period of time the main responsibility for preparation moves from the collegiate institution to the school where the beginning practitioner is employed. Thus a third phase of the program of teacher education begins and continues as long as the teacher teaches.[17]

There is a gradual shift in responsibility for teacher education as the teacher moves through the preparation program—from almost complete college responsibility to a joint college-school responsibility to a school responsibility. Difficulties arise concerning how, when, and to what degree responsibility phases from one agency to the other. For example, during student teaching who is responsible for providing maximally effective supervision? Who should shoulder the financial burden—the college, the school district, or as L. O. Andrews recommends, the state or nation?

Joint responsibility during the practice phase of the preparation program has created a need for joint appointment. The "clinical professor" is one such arrangement. Quotation marks are placed around clinical professor because of the use of the term in the context of joint appointments of public schools and colleges. It so happens that two colleges in Oregon have "clinical professors" who are appointed jointly. Each is a different arrangement, however, and both are dissimilar to James B. Conant's concept of the position. As I understand Conant's idea of a clinical professor, this person might hold a joint appointment, but he is more likely to hold appointments in different departments or schools within a university rather than an appointment with a public school and a university. One of the difficulties in discussing "clinical professors" in this presentation is caused by different conceptualizations of the position. As a matter of fact, after examining the role of the clinical professor at the University of Oregon, some are apt to say that he is nothing more than a resident coordinator. We may progress further if we consider joint appointments as our concern rather than focussing on the clinical professor as such, except as he is part of a school-college cooperative venture.

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[17] *Ibid.*, p. 194.

Joint Appointments as an Organizational Position

One means of looking at joint appointments is as an organizational position. Organization should facilitate achieving the objectives of a teacher preparation program. Examination of problems arising in a given organizational setting can give clues to organizational change and redefinition of roles. To illustrate, let me use the University of Oregon as an example. During the past several years, university faculty has become aware of the lack of high quality supervision in student teaching. An excellent classroom teacher is not necessarily a good supervisor. Competence in supervisory skills can be learned, but the provisions for effectively creating a setting for the acquisition of these skills have not been satisfactorily developed.

Another difficulty associated with the student teaching phase of teacher education programs resides in the fact that supervisors from both the school and the university have assumed responsibility for the development of the prospective teacher's competence. Difficulties arise from the lack of clear role definition of those involved. Supervisors from both institutions are assuming the role of "shaping" the prospective teacher's behavior. In this situation it is not uncommon for one supervisor to observe and decide upon one approach to helping the student while another supervisor is pursuing a different means. The two supervisors may have equally good approaches; they simply may be taking different routes toward the same goal. When this occurs, confusion may well result for the one being helped. The student wonders whose suggestions he should follow. Most likely, since teaching is such a complex activity, the two supervisors are looking at different aspects of the teaching act and attempting to provide help. The question arises of how many aspects of the teacher's behavior can be worked on at the same time without confusing and frustrating the prospective teacher.

Because of the lack of clear definition of the roles to be assumed by the university supervisor and the supervising teacher, each may assume that the other is looking after certain aspects of the student's development. It is not infrequent that one hears the supervising teacher ask, What does the University of Oregon expect of me?

Yet a further factor clouds the situation with two supervisors working to upgrade the student's teaching ability, and that is the threat to the supervising teacher arising from the university supervisor's entrance upon the scene. This threat seems to grow out of the fact that the university has the basic responsibility for the education of prospective teachers and therefore has a highly competent staff steeped in theoretical knowledge. Consequently, the public school teacher may feel that the university staff member coming into the situation may observe something which is theoretically poor teaching. While most university supervisors attempt to guard against behavior that may threaten the teacher, feelings of insecurity seem to prevail.

A number of alternative solutions were examined in the light of the reality of our setting and a joint appointment—a "clinical professor"—was the end product. The specifics of the organization can be examined elsewhere.[18] *The point here is that a change in organization—the creation or elimination of positions and the redefinition of roles—can be a means of facilitating the achievement of objectives. A joint appointment for the sake of a joint appointment is of little value. The joint appointment must be developed because it meets the needs of the organization.*

While the discussion thus far has considered the problems of teacher education from the college viewpoint, it must not be forgotten that the joint appointment is a position in two organizations. Joint appointments also must serve the needs of the public school organization. Additional problems and issues arise from the fact that the joint appointment position is a part of two separate organizations. Each organization has its own set of objectives, and although the objectives may be overlapping and mutually supportive of each other, the college and the public schools differ on the priority of emphasis they give to certain objectives.

The Task Ahead

These brief remarks are not meant to be a definitive analysis of the topic of joint appointments and clinical professor; rather, the hope is that they serve as a beginning point in identifying and thinking through some of the problems and issues that surround this area. Joint responsibility of colleges and public schools for teacher education is an established fact in our world today; consequently, it behooves us to explore the joint appointment as a means of making the cooperative venture maximally productive.

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[18] Scrivner, A. W. and others. "Action Programs of Inservice Education." *Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching.* 1966. pp. 87-91.

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PART IX

Designing Effective Internships In Teacher Education

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The Development of Internships

The problems encountered by neophyte professionals and the demands of social and scientific changes, together with a severe teacher shortage, have led to innovations in teacher education programs. Many of these new programs require five or more years for completion, including a period of paid internship.

The Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) is one type of five-year teacher education program that was designed to recruit teachers in secondary education and improve the preparation of teachers. The MAT can probably be said to be, as Paul Woodring stated:

> The first program for high school teachers that rests upon some clear-cut assumptions about high school teaching is distinct from both elementary and college teaching. Those who designed the program rejected the college-teacher theory that academic scholarship is the only essential for teachers. They also rejected the teachers-college view that a program for secondary teachers should be similar to that for elementary teachers, but with a little more emphasis on the major.[19]

In general, these programs require four years of some kind of liberal studies, including a strong academic major, plus a fifth year consisting in part of professional courses or seminars and an internship, and in part of academic specialization at the graduate level.

Most of the current teacher education internships in the United States were established during the last two decades; a large percentage follow the MAT pattern. Other internship programs were designed primarily to extend the professional laboratory experience, during which the teacher candidate could assume greater professional responsibility than during student teaching. Within this arrangement the student was provided an extended, supervised practice period during which he could apply and test theoretical insights.

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[19] Woodring, Paul, "The Need for a Unifying Theory of Teacher Education," *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal.* (Edited by Elmer Reia Smith.) New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

In a paper prepared for delivery at a National TEPS Conference, Shaplin outlined several interests and significant characteristics of teacher education internships developed during the last ten years: (a) the intern has greater responsibility when he is teaching, but has less professional preparation for intern teaching; (b) the intern spends less time teaching due to a heavy course load; (c) the internship is not a sequel to professional preparation—it is the very essence of the preparation; (d) the internship is an alternative to traditional teacher education, not a culmination; (e) and the programs are apparently based on the academic structure of the college and the nature of its relationship with the local schools.

The Structure of Internships

Current intern, fifth-year, and MAT programs follow the same general pattern in the number of credits to be earned and the length of the total experience. But, within this general pattern, a very wide variety of experiences are provided. Most of these programs consist of two summers and an intervening academic year beyond the bachelor's degree, with the internship included during a part, or all, of the academic year.

During the first summer any one, or a combination, of the following courses and professional experiences may be included during the beginning phase of the fifth-year internship: (a) orientation to teaching and the internship operation; (b) observation-participation in a demonstration summer school; (c) three to nine credits in an academic teaching area; (d) three to nine credits in professional education courses; (e) observation-participation-student teaching in a summer school program (in only a few programs); (f) observation-participation, but no student teaching, in a university laboratory school; or (g) very limited student teaching. Some of the institutions providing professional laboratory experiences also hold a weekly seminar designed to relate theory and classroom experiences. This first phase of these programs varies in length from one or two weeks to a full summer term.

During the following academic year, the student is placed in a school for one semester or a full year. In most cases, he has a reduced teaching load of one-half to four-fifths that of a full-time teacher. In a few teacher education programs the interns teach only one hour per day during the first of a four-semester internship, and a few programs require full-time teaching during a full year of internship. The interns receive a salary based on the beginning teacher's salary, paid by the local public school or a supporting foundation. Supervision of interns is provided by persons in a variety of positions in the local public schools: teachers, administrators, regular supervisors, or specialists (in a minimum of cases) who have received special preparation in supervision of interns. In a few cases, those responsible for supervision have been granted free time to assume this responsibility. The sponsoring teacher education institution also provides supervision of interns, but often only a minimum number of visits are made to the schools where interns are assigned.

During the second summer of enrollment, following the internship, the student normally completes the requirements for a master's degree and/or a teaching credential. This usually requires the completion of six to twelve credit hours in the student's major academic area or in professional education.

Another type of internship in teacher education has been established within the last decade: a five-year sequence leading to a teaching credential and the bachelor's degree. Other types of internships exist but are not common.

The Development of a Unifying Theory

Diversity and variety in program design as a manifestation of adequate flexibility is a strength, especially when the need for program innovation is great. However, many teacher education institutions have been experimenting with internships for ten years or more. Today there is a need for stability and program improvement to establish a basic design for internships in teacher education which is most effective and within which alternative and innovative methods, procedures, and practices can be utilized in the interest of program improvement. To aid in achieving this, The Association for Student Teaching appointed a Commission on Internships in Teacher Education. An initial step taken by the Commission was to develop a definition on teacher education internships. The working definition under consideration is as follows:

> The internship in teacher education is an integral part of the professional preparation of the teacher candidate, having been preceded by successful observation-participation and student teaching experiences in a school classroom; is planned and coordinated by the teacher education institution in cooperation with one or more schools; during which the intern is (a) contracted by and paid by a local school board, (b) assigned a reduced teaching load for a school year, (c) enrolled in college courses that parallel his professional experience, and (d) supervised by a highly competent teacher employed by the cooperating school who is recognized for his supervisory capacity and assigned released time to devote to the supervision of interns, and by a college supervisor who

makes periodic observations and works closely with the school supervisor.[20]

Before this definition is accepted by those responsible for developing and modifying teacher preparation programs, certain problems, issues, and concerns must be resolved. The following controversial points need discussion and clarification.

1. Should the internship be preceded by well-defined professional laboratory experiences?
    a. What kinds of experience and how much?
    b. Need the intern have completed a sequential program of professional studies and clinical experiences over a three- or four-year period of time prior to the internship?
2. What kinds of relationships between teacher education institutions and schools facilitate internship programs?
    a. Are new kinds of arrangements needed, changing traditional roles and responsibilities of institutions and schools designing and implementing programs?
    b. What kinds of preliminary discussions, planning, and agreements between schools and institutions are needed to facilitate internships?
    c. Who should assume major supervisory responsibilities?
    d. Should the university supervisor provide direct supervision equivalent to that of the school supervisor?
    e. Should the supervisor have special professional preparation?
    f. What kinds of arrangements will facilitate screening of both interns and school supervisors as the program progresses?
    g. What types of assistance should the university provide supervisors, interns, and the school during the internship period?
    h. What kinds of licensing or certification arrangements are desirable for interns?
    i. How much released time should the school supervisor receive to work with interns?
    j. How much salary should the intern and school supervisor receive? Who should pay their salary?
    k. What kinds of experiences should the intern teacher receive in the school to which he is assigned?
3. How can theoretical studies be related most meaningfully to internship experiences?
    a. What areas of knowledge, kinds of college courses, and

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[20] Association for Student Teaching, Commission on Internships in Teacher Education. "A Working Definition of Internships in Teacher Education." The Association, August 1966.

professional laboratory experiences should precede the teaching internship?

b. What areas of knowledge, kinds of college courses, and other experiences do interns need during the internship period? How shall they be related?

c. What kinds of research studies should be conducted to evaluate the internship experience?

The Task Ahead

Each of the questions should be given careful consideration in the interest of establishing a well-defined framework or theory that will serve as a guide in the development and improvement of internships in teacher education. The task of improving teacher education programs can be achieved if those involved will strive toward establishing a unifying theory of teacher education and develop a schema for establishing desirable relationships between teacher education institutions and public schools.

PART X

Prestudent Teaching Laboratory Experiences

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Prestudent teaching laboratory experiences will more likely achieve their potentially high level of significance when they are pursued within a systematic, organized, logically developed frame of reference. They need to be based on a sound and consistent rationale. They should have a discernible structure and should be closely related to other facets of the preservice professional curriculum. In short, they need to be conceived, implemented, and evaluated in a manner not at all unlike our best curriculum development processes.

What do we hope to gain from prestudent teaching laboratory experiences? An easy answer might be "readiness for student teaching, of course," but that does not really give us much direction. In fact, taken too literally it might be misleading. We might start with these purposes for the student:

1. Development of sensitivity: to a teacher's roles; to the needs and nature of children; to the nature of learning processes and the immediate implications for teaching processes that are closely related
2. Development of insight: into each item listed above; into himself as a teacher-to-be; into curriculum structure and development
3. Development of teaching skills
4. Refinement of teaching skills
5. Changes in perception. Perhaps this is a restatement of the other ideas, but it seems to be highly related to the process of changes in behavior. As such it can become a tangible goal.

Rather than attempt to expand this list now, let us ask a question. Are all these possible in every experience? No! Not only are they not possible, but they are not necessary or appropriate in every experience.

For example, some experiences may be planned with the purpose of introducing a student to the complexities of an elementary classroom; subsequent discussion may help him understand his reactions. Another experience might be designed to develop his insight into the growth and developmental patterns of adolescents. Neither of these would necessarily be concerned with development of teaching skills. My point is this: our primary task is to ascertain the purpose of the anticipated experience; to set our objectives.

We have all seen programs that seemed to assume that some kind of black magic was at work in all school classrooms. Put a college student in such a setting and, "presto," he automatically soaks up, sees, or somehow *learns* what is happening and what he ought to do to provide learning experiences that are at least as good if not better. Surely all such programs are dead and buried by now—or are they? They are likely to be very much alive when we are content to seek just *anything* as long as it is *something* that brings students into contact with children. Both we and our students need to have a clear understanding of purposes, and we need to help the students in realizing them—in trying to bring meaning to the outcomes of their experiences.

The list of objectives we could create might be endless, but some would have higher significance and relevance. We have to establish priorities of objectives and the sequence of attaining them. Having accomplished this, we can then try to determine what experiences, facilities, and personnel are needed to meet the various objectives. The subsequent locating of and arranging for facilities are often exceedingly difficult steps, and I do not play down their importance or their complexity. I, as do many others, spend much of my time in this phase of administering a program. Too little time is spent in careful, analytical goal-setting before we get mired down in a bog of detailed arranging. We cannot afford to let these logistical tails wag the qualitative dog. Many programs never get off the ground, because we worry too soon about just how we will take care of all the details.

Additional tasks face us. At the risk of skimming over important areas too lightly, let me simply list them: (a) providing adequate supervision, considering differences of both the kind and amount needed in various types of experiences; (b) providing periodic opportunities for students to analyze their own experiences—to examine their personal responses to their experiences; (c) encouraging students to reflect on the process of synthesizing their changing perceptions; (d) providing formal and informal evaluation opportunities for staffs as well as students. These are basic components of effective implementation, and each demands our careful attention.

Many kinds of direct experiences are being provided for students. Some are undertaken almost by habit; we have had them with us so long that we take them for granted without questioning their values. New approaches, such as simulation techniques and the use of closed-circuit television, have greatly expanded the range of experiences available to students. In some cases the more vicarious experiences are supplementing those which bring students into direct, personal interaction with children. In other cases they are replacing observation and participation. A few research studies have been directed to the question of the relative merits of different types of experiences. Other studies are now investigating the effects of different amounts of time spent and various combinations of types. Progress has been slowed not only by a paucity of valid instruments to measure effects but also by our lack of clarity in defining our goals in terms of behavioral outcomes. Yes, the times are ripe for innovation, but we need to do a better job of studying the directions in which innovation should lead.

Let us look now at our second major concern: developing programs of prestudent teaching laboratory experiences as cooperative school-college ventures. If success is to be attained, there must be mutual confidence and trust between the two institutions. We cannot work on the basis that one party is "farming out" some difficult or time-consuming part of its job to a minor league team or to a group occupying a lower level of status on a professional totem pole.

It seems reasonable that colleges will want to have their students in the best possible learning situations. Should they therefore request minimum criteria for the schools and teachers with whom their students work? Should they want opportunities for their own staff members to visit and consult with students and school personnel? Are these legitimate concerns for *prestudent* teaching experiences? Most of us would answer "yes."

On the other hand, is it reasonable for the schools to expect to have a functional role in planning and carrying out laboratory experiences? If they are partners, the "yes" seems apparent.

These are actually some of the same questions we have been asking ourselves as we worked with student teaching. Many similar problems face us in developing and administering prestudent teaching programs, but they are intensified by the sheer weight of greater numbers of students. We are working on a broader base and with greater variations in curriculum patterns that affect prestudent teaching experiences.

We create different problems for cooperating schools with the greater diversity of experiences we seek. Supervising teachers who are familiar with student teachers often seek help to understand better the differences between observers/participants and student teachers. As a result, our communication and supervision problems take on additional dimensions of complexity. Colleges and schools can find their staffs heavily involved in planning and coordination, both of which are expensive in time, energy, and facilities. Continued growth toward coordinated programs demands a high degree of commitment by all concerned. It is apparent that we cannot afford to ignore the need (a) to develop greater efficiency, and (b) to weigh carefully the values we can actually effect through prestudent teaching laboratory experiences.

Here are several questions that might be considered. Each represents a fundamental issue that has to be resolved.

1. How does a student actually profit from pre-student teaching laboratory experiences? How are behavioral changes effected?
2. How much experience is needed? In which stage(s) of the college curriculum should they occur?
3. How do we organize our college staff, resources, and energies so that we can efficiently plan objectives and implement programs? How do we relate a series of experiences so that a pattern of planned scope, sequence, and continuity can be provided?
4. What kinds of cooperative school-college ventures are likely to be most productive? How do we ascertain our program's effectiveness? What behavioral changes can we expect in students?
5. What are the individual and mutual roles that the colleges and the schools need to assume? What kinds and degrees of responsibility does each take in (a) planning, (b) implementing, (c) supervising, and (d) evaluating?
6. How do we overcome the major logistical and administrative problems? How do the differences in colleges and school communities affect these problems?

It is obvious that people working in different situations will not deal with these issues in the same way. Immediate problems will differ. Facilities, curricula, and even purposes may vary. It seems essential therefore that we focus on those areas which can help us clarify our respective goals and bring into clearer perspective our needs for integrated programs of pre-student teaching laboratory experiences.

PART XI

Continuing Teacher Education

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What Is Continuing Teacher Education?

Continuing teacher education is a term which conveys the thought that there are comprehensive involvements of personnel and institutions with broadly conceived programs for developing the competence of in-service teachers. Continuing teacher education involves elementary and secondary schools, colleges, universities, and other appropriate agencies in partnerships wherein their personnel plan for the improvement of educational programs through the professional growth of the school staff. A teacher's professional preparation does not terminate when his first degree has been earned or when he receives his first teaching certificate. In retrospect, most teachers would agree that their professional competence is just, at this point, being challenged!

What Are the Purposes of Continuing Teacher Education?

Good schools can always be better, and competent teachers can always improve. Essentially, continuing teacher education exists to meet the challenge of providing an increasingly better education for the students in the schools. There is an urgent need for teachers to be familiar with relevant research and recent developments in education. They must see the implications of the findings and developments for application in their classrooms. There is also a need for teachers to refine their teaching skills.

Who Becomes Involved in Continuing Teacher Education?

All professional personnel in elementary and secondary schools, colleges, and universities may be involved, along with personnel from other appropriate educational agencies. In current favor is the concept that a college or university, as a total institution, has faculty with skills and special knowledge which can be properly channeled at appropriate times to help personnel at all elementary and secondary school levels.

What Guiding Principles Prevail in Continuing Teacher Education?

The first, and perhaps the most important, principle should be that continuing teacher education programs must be related directly to the individuals involved.

Second, the relationships between personnel and institutions—colleges, universities, and other educational agencies—must encourage experimentation, creative teaching, and critical thinking.

A third guiding principle is that leadership must be encouraged, nurtured, shared, and recognized as both an opportunity and a responsibility by all members of the continuing teacher education team.

Fourth, teachers, administrators, professors, and others must have a feeling of successful accomplishment about their continuing teacher education activities. They must be involved in and informed about the progress being made. They must believe that the program is worthwhile and that they have played a significant role in making it so.

What Trends Appear to be Emerging in Continuing Teacher Education?

Teachers are becoming more involved in planning the content of continuing teacher education programs. Their performance in roles as members of continuing teacher education committees, as emerging leaders, and as persons in status leadership positions has been exceptionally well-received and influential in helping to upgrade and improve the competence of teachers and administrators.

Another trend is the cooperative involvement activities wherein the elementary and secondary school teachers and administrators utilize college and university personnel, facilities, and programs. In some states, the demand for continuing teacher education experiences has been so overwhelming that colleges and universities have frequently been unable to meet the requests of elementary and secondary schools. One result has been that institutions in some of these states have utilized educational television with greater meaning and purpose in their cooperative attempts to meet the needs of experienced teachers.

What Continuing Teacher Education Program Is an Example?

Doherty[21] indicates that the Carnegie Corporation of New York in cooperation with the Portland, Oregon, public schools is responsible for planning a program of continuing teacher education for all teachers in the school district on a long-term basis. By 1965, 100 courses and workshops had been developed to meet the needs of the Portland teachers. The school district relies mainly on outstanding Portland teachers to lead and staff the continuing teacher education program. However, cooperative relationships with Oregon institutions of higher education and representative college and university faculty members have resulted in their helping to develop and teach special courses and workshops. College faculty members also serve as advisors and consultants to the public school teachers who teach the continuing teacher education courses.

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[21] Doherty, Victor W. "Something New In In-Service Education: Portland's Carnegie Program." *American School Board Journal* 150:31; May 1965.

Why Does Continuing Teacher Education Make a Difference?

Continuing teacher education programs enhance the caliber of teaching in specific school buildings or systems. They focus on problems recognized and selected by local staff members. Staff members not only select topics on which they will work, they also map the plan of attack and control the direction of movement. At their invitation, personnel from other institutions and agencies join with them in conducting continuing teacher education programs. The resulting cooperatively planned programs may range from courses offered, with academic credit, by nearby colleges to more informal workshops with few, if any, outsiders. A typical plan evolves with representatives of colleges, state departments, and professional organizations as consultants. Continuing teacher education is not something *done to* school staffs. It is *a program of self-improvement* selected, planned, and led by them. The opportunity for colleges and other agencies to join with schools in cooperatively developing vital new programs is endless, so long as that basic premise remains uppermost.

PART XII

In-Service Education of Supervising Teachers and College Supervisors

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Selection and preparation of supervising teachers and college supervisors are significant factors in the development of sound student teaching programs. The classroom teachers, school administrators, and college faculty who are assuming new and unique responsibilities in the teacher education partnership must be provided with sophisticated, well-organized experiences which will enhance those understandings and perceptions which may reasonably assure the competence necessary for effective supervision.

The concept of in-service education gains meaning when several basic assumptions are identified. First, there are special skills and understandings necessary for effective supervision which can be acquired through education and experiences. Second, in-service education programs can be designed which give substance to a concept of enlightened, effective supervision.

Supervisors of student teaching must understand concepts of learning and development unique to the age group to which most college students belong. Supervisors must also gain a clear understanding of their roles in the total teacher education program.

They must have a thorough understanding of the principles of teaching and be able to demonstrate them while being observed by another adult. They need to be persons who have confidence in their ability. Yet they must also be able to identify their own weaknesses and shortcomings, as well as their strengths.

Rounding out this brief description, supervisors of student teachers have the responsibility for evaluating the work of a novice teacher, while helping him reach his full potential. This dimension of evaluation can present a major problem. The close personal relationship that develops between supervisors and student teachers as they work together can make it difficult to keep evaluation on a professional basis.

This description identifies certain types of knowledge, understanding, and skill that individuals who would guide the growth of prospec-

tive teachers should possess. Supervisors of student teachers should qualify for the title "master in the profession."

The knowledge, understanding, and skill that supervisors of student teachers should possess are, of course, objectives of in-service education experiences. They are, in part, drawn from the 1966 AST Yearbook and relate themselves to a process rather than a program. In this light, the in-service education program is a means to the end, not the end itself.

In addition to his supervisory responsibilities, the college supervisor serves as a consultant to the supervising teacher. The college supervisor has the task of providing the continuing professional leadership which will enhance the supervising teacher's participation in the student teaching program and his opportunity to achieve success. It is to these ends that preparatory programs and in-service education experiences for the college supervisor should be directed.

In recent publications related to in-service education of teacher education personnel, the outstanding contribution, in my opinion, is a demonstration that realistic and effective in-service education programs are a result of cooperative planning by the three institutions which share the responsibility for teacher education: the college, the cooperating school, and the state department of education. In too many cases, in-service programs for supervisors of student teachers have limited success, because we have been unwilling or unable to utilize the combined resources and skills of these three institutions for program development at the grass roots level.

Recent AST publications, which identify skills and understandings needed for supervision, provide valuable criteria for selection. For those who are responsible for developing in-service experiences for supervising teachers and college supervisors, these lists of skills and understandings are not adequate in themselves. They are behavioral descriptions and surface manifestations of attitudes and understandings, but they do not identify those experiences which cause people to behave as described. Skills and understandings, once identified, should provide clues for program planning, and become the goals. The task is to develop suitable means for reaching these goals. It is therefore necessary to develop a psychological and philosophical rationale upon which to develop in-service education experiences that may produce effective supervision.

The problem is that neither good teaching nor good supervision is a direct function of certain methods rather than others. One cannot assume that methods used by the expert can be or should be taught directly to beginners. The effectiveness of the methods is a product of the uniqueness of personality rather than a set of skills to be employed by basically good personalities. Good teaching, good supervision is a very personal thing. According to Combs, we may define the effective teacher as a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others.

This is not a new concept. This is the now familiar psychology which attempts to explain behavior from the internal perceptions of the person. It regards human beings as unique events in the process of becoming. Structuring in-service education experiences that are intended to change the behavior of those who participate in these experiences should be based on this tenet of perceptual psychology: "To change another person's behavior, it is necessary somehow to modify his beliefs (and) perceptions. When he sees things differently, he will behave differently."

When developing in-service education experiences for supervising teachers and college supervisors, it must be remembered that a body of knowledge is necessary for them to perform effectively in these capacities. Effective in-service education programs will, however, focus upon providing opportunities for individuals to modify perceptions of themselves in relation to their responsibilities in teacher education.

In-service education programs, generally, must help each supervisor find the methods best suited to him, to his purposes, to his task, and to the unique populations and problems with which he must deal on the job. This is not so much a matter of *teaching* appropriate methods as one of helping supervisors to *discover* these methods. It is a question of finding the approaches right for the *supervisor* rather than right for *supervising*. This approach to program planning places emphasis upon the *self* as an *instrument*. A body of knowledge is very important, but it has meaning only from the perceptions of the supervisor himself. Personal involvement develops personal meanings and commitment without which professional supervision is impossible. It is this commitment which we seek to develop through in-service education programs for those who would guide the growth of prospective teachers.

In summary, student teaching programs of desirable quality cannot be achieved unless we assist those who supervise student teachers to prepare themselves for this unique responsibility. Appropriate in-service education programs for supervisors of student teaching must be developed by committed, cooperative, active participation by personnel from schools, colleges, and the state. Such cooperative ventures in teacher education must focus upon continued growth of supervisors in *all* dimensions of their professional responsibilities, with special emphasis on increasingly effective supervision of student teachers.

Section VI

A Look at the Future

Giant steps and baby steps! The terms remind us of a childhood game. They remind us, too, that the winner was not always the one who took the greatest number of giant steps. Rather it was he who used his steps most wisely, consistently moving ahead short distances as well as long, and reaching the goal without being "sent back" for lack of watchfulness.

DOROTHY M. McGEOCH

PART I

Giant Steps and Baby Steps

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The Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education came into being in 1962. It was sponsored by The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and included representatives from The Association for Student Teaching. Subsequently two reports of cooperative activities involving schools and colleges were published. In 1966, a Workshop-Symposium was sponsored by AACTE and AST to make a critical analysis of selected programs and to project guidelines for future endeavors. The present volume is based on a report of that conference. There is no doubt that the work of the subcommittee has constituted the most important effort yet made to gather knowledge about, to study, and to plan for productive partnerships in teacher education.

But the work of the subcommittee does something else. It illustrates the present condition and the direction of needed change in our conception of cooperative endeavors. In the makeup of the committee, in this report of joint enterprises, among the participants in the Workshop-Symposium, the teacher preparing institutions are fully represented. The school personnel is not. As token integration has been substituted for more desirable goals in racial matters, so token participation by school personnel still characterizes cooperative ventures in teacher education. A partnership of equals is a largely unrealized goal.

But we have begun to know something of what such a partnership might look like. Brooks Smith has sketched the major characteristics of the role of the schools, the teacher education institutions, the state agencies, and the professional organizations. He has also developed an illustrative model for collaboration in instruction in teaching. Implementation of the ideas contained in the model would go a long way toward making legitimate the present illicit relationship described by Cogan.

The emerging programs which are reported also illustrate steps toward legitimate, if limited, collaboration. Each represents some pioneering procedures and some potential gain in knowledge about productive relationships. Together, they are helpful in defining present practice as well as in illuminating the limitations under which we now operate.

But present programs, however innovative, cannot provide direction for the future. Teacher education is now in the midst of a massive reevaluation of every aspect of its purpose and program. New developments in the role of schools and teachers, in conceptualization of teaching systems, in the analysis of teaching behavior as a basis for identifying and organizing content, and in the individualization and personalization of learning have important suggestions for teacher education. Statements by LaGrone, Openshaw, and Combs suggested some of these implications. There remains, however, the problem of reconciling a variety of important influences and developing programs, including direct experiences in the schools, which reflect priorities and consistent purposes.

The forces impinging on teacher education are not limited to those which provide a foundation for content and methodology. The direct experience aspect of preparing teachers is clearly related to such innovations in supervision as the use of systems of analysis of teaching behavior, team supervision, simulation techniques, micro-teaching procedures, and analytical conferencing. These, by themselves, suggest new and challenging ways of doing better the job which is already being done. They offer little guidance in determining the ultimate purposes to which they may be expected to contribute if used with skill and insight.

More specifically related to the development of cooperative endeavors are emerging administrative and regulatory developments including programs of federal support. These developments have the potential for profoundly influencing practice, because, lacking clearcut goals and defined policies, all educational institutions are inclined to find it convenient to adopt procedures which will be acceptable to regulatory agencies or eligible for financial support. Certainly increased support is necessary for any significant advances in cooperatively developed programs. So are carefully developed contractual and administrative arrangements. They must operate, however, to facilitate, not to determine, the development of teacher education in the future. Again, it is the defined goal which is important.

In the statement which completes this report, Margaret Lindsey analyzes some conditions and factors which suggest bases for decisions in teacher education and implications for future cooperative decisions. She has sketched an enticing vision of possible forms of close collaboration which could be of immeasurable value to all concerned. The mountain top is clear above the clouds if we can but develop the wisdom and the persistence to find our way through the mists below.

A definition of roles and functions such as that proposed by Brooks Smith represents a major advance. So do some of the developing insights in the foundation areas. But an infinite number of lesser gains are also necessary. A continuing analysis of causes of tensions in cooperative relations built on Ladd's perceptive formulation; systems for analyzing teacher behavior which provide open criteria for cooperating teacher, student, and college supervisor; support for innovative new institutional arrangements to facilitate productive joint efforts; support, too, for the development of the intermediate models between theoretical formulations and practical applications as described by Goodlad—all of these contribute to the self-reasoned action which is necessary to real progress.

Giant steps and baby steps! The terms remind us of a childhood game. They remind us, too, that the winner was not always the one who took the greatest number of giant steps. Rather it was he who used his steps most wisely, consistently moving ahead short distances as well as long, and reaching the goal without being "sent back" for lack of watchfulness.

As a result of the work of the Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education, we have some knowledge of where we are, we know something of where our efforts might lead us, and we have a variety of clues which suggest the way between. There is no smooth path and consistent rate of progress, however. Giant steps and baby steps—we need them both.

PART II

Speculations on the Future of Teacher Education and Cooperative Endeavors

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In the report of a conference held in Santa Barbara on Strategies for School Improvement, it is noted that the participants agreed that:

> . . . the present scene is characterized by a dangerous tendency to change haphazardly. . . . We need a method and a program that will ensure rational change. . . .
>
> In its simplest sense, change is the substitution of one thing for another; but growth, or improvement, assumes a fundamental reorganization of thinking, and implies that any resulting change be self-reasoned action that follows upon intelligent analysis.[1]

Few informed educators would disagree with the notion that there is danger in haphazard change, in change for the sake of change. Nor would thoughtful persons reject the idea that improvement is the end sought by change and that such improvement comes about by rational processes. But, as educators, we share with other members of the human species in this age a marked tendency to act, to adopt, to revise, to reorganize, to renew, to delete, to innovate, and then to seek to rationalize our proposals or our behavior.

The topic, "Speculations on the Future of Teacher Education in Cooperative Endeavors," appears to call for action proposals that might be anticipated in the interest of improving teacher education and cooperative endeavors related to it. But the observation by the conferees at Santa Barbara suggests that any proposals for action be self-reasoned and follow upon intelligent analysis. In this light, the task of this paper is *more* to provide a beginning analysis and *less* to provide action proposals.

Just about everything going on in the world has a bearing on some dimension of the teacher education program. The current rise in existential philosophy; the war in Viet Nam; local, state, national, and international politics; conflict in ideologies; the urban ghettos; the labor movement; the welfare state; phenomena surrounding the computer; the civil rights movement—these, and others you could add, all have some implications for teacher preparation. Within the limits of this paper it is possible to deal only with a selected few of the conditions and developments that *immediately* encompass teacher educators. Three areas have been selected as illustrative; they are dealt with in such ways as to suggest implications for future cooperative endeavors in the education of teachers. These three areas are (a) the demand for empirically tested knowledge as a basis for decisions, (b) a modified conception of teacher education, and (c) emphasis on individuals as persons.

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[1] Center for Coordinated Education, University of California at Santa Barbara. *The Nature of Growth: Strategies for School Improvement*. The Center, 1966. p. 5.

Emphasis on Empirically Tested Knowledge as a Basis for Decisions in Teacher Education

Education is taking on a new character as a field of study. One aspect of this new character is a persistent demand for empirically tested knowledge, knowledge on which predictions can be based. It is claimed that most of what is now done in teacher education programs is the result of tradition, beliefs, values, and armchair reasoning; that competitive jumping on the band wagon of what is in mode accounts for much of what is called "improvement" in programs. Admittedly there is some truth to this claim. An either-or position is most unwise, however, for values, beliefs, and reflective thinking will always have a place in planning programs. Nevertheless, the present demand for validated and verified knowledge arises in large part from a lack of confidence in decisions that rest on untested hunches, on uncritical transfer of propositions from one field to another, and on keeping ahead of the Joneses.

Certainly scientific inquiry is not the only mode appropriate to analytical study of education. Yet, it is essential that education be studied in ways which will produce validated predictions about cause-effect relationships. It is not that such study has never been attempted. The monumental work by Barr and others on teaching effectiveness was clearly related to establishing predictions. Such efforts, however, suffered from inadequate definition of a criterion of effectiveness, from failure adequately to take into account influential intervening variables, from tendency to deal with the problem and its context in global terms, and from inadequate research methodologies and tools. Present demands for renewed emphasis on scientific study of education are made with cognizance of the difficulties and inadequacies of earlier studies and of the still unresolved problems that confront contemporary researchers.

Finding and Defining the Variables Pertinent to Teacher Education:

It is neither important nor possible to establish by comparative studies the relative merits of four years of preparation as against five years, or of *some* professional preparation as against *none* prior to assuming the teaching role, or of liberal arts college programs as against teachers college programs. Nor is it necessary to determine, even if it were possible, the advantages of one specific professional sequence over another. What is important is that variables assumed to be worthy of study be defined and that relationships between and among variables be tested. When hypothesized relationships are subjected to rigorous and wide tests and found valid, a piece of empirically tested knowledge has been produced. When integrated with other tested knowledge, propositions may be formed which allow predictions in which confidence can be placed.

A good deal of what is now done in teacher education is based upon propositions, generalizations, and principles that are *assumed* to have predictive value. Very little evidence is available, however, on the validity and reliability of many of these assumptions. Teacher educators dare no longer neglect their responsibility for systematic investigation of the assumptions that lie back of practice. For example, much has been written about the qualities that make a classroom teacher an effective guide for student teachers, and about how a cooperating teacher should behave in order to provide for the student those experiences presumed to contribute to his gaining control over the many aspects of teaching. What has been written is based largely on conclusions drawn from general observation without benefit of designing the collection, systematic recording, and analysis of data. *Now* it is demanded that serious effort be made to determine what kinds of behavior on the part of a cooperating teacher may be predicted to help a student teacher achieve stated objectives. If empirically tested knowledge on this question were available, implications for the selection and preparation of cooperating teachers, for ways in which to help such teachers study and improve their behavior with student teachers, and for assessing their effectiveness could be extracted.

Our task in obtaining this useful knowledge would flow something like this. First, a presumed relationship between a variable in the behavior or person of the cooperating teacher and a stated outcome in behavior of the student teacher would be hypothesized. It is important to recognize that the selection of variables to be studied is, in significant measure, a function of values. What one chooses to study is as important as the methods employed in the study. Second, both variables would be so defined as to make it possible to obtain data on them, using available tools or constructing new tools. The importance of this step is often overlooked. Failure to carry on the descriptive studies necessary for definitive, behavioral statements of variables is the source of much difficulty in current research. Third, armed with descriptive definitions, we would proceed to set up a situation in which to test our hypothesized relationship between the independent variable (behavior of cooperating teacher) and the dependent variable (behavior of the student teacher). Fourth, if our hypothesis appeared to be valid in one situation, study of it would be replicated in a range of situations to test further our findings. On the other hand, if our hunch proved to be invalid, we would be obliged to examine possible factors contributing to lack of validity, and to revise the hypothesis and proceed with new tests, or tests in new and different situations.[2]

Illustrative of the kinds of hypotheses that might be tested in this manner are these:

> If a cooperating teacher engages the student in systematic analysis of his verbal behavior in asking questions while teaching, the student will increase the number of questions asked that elicit higher-level cognitive processes in pupils.
>
> If a cooperating teacher engages a student teacher in systematic analysis of his behavior as a team member, the student will demonstrate improvement in his behavior as a team member in the student teaching setting.
>
> If a cooperating teacher engages in guided analysis of his verbal behavior in conference with a student teacher, the number of times the cooperating teacher is able to get the student teacher

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[2] At Teachers College, Columbia University, we are in our third year of a project designed to produce some empirically tested knowledge about the nature and effects of interaction between students, cooperating teachers, and college supervisors. To date, preliminary studies have established confidence that such interaction can be studied, and findings will be useful in the selection and preparation of personnel to work with students in laboratory situations. Current investigations are producing definitive descriptions of selected variables and instruments for collecting, recording, and analyzing data on these variables. Initial studies to test cause-effect relationships among variables are under way. A report of this project and implications for teacher education will be available early in 1968.

Information on the project may be obtained from Margaret Lindsey.

Brown, Betsy; Cobban, Margaret; and Waterman, Floyd. The Analysis of Verbal Teaching Behavior: An Approach to Supervisory Conferences with Student Teachers.

Brown, Richard; and Hoffman, Mirian. A Promissory Model for Analyzing and Describing Verbal Interaction Between College Supervisors and Student Teachers during Supervisory Conferences.

Canfield, James; Low, Arlene; and Mullins, Robert. A Principle of Learning Approach to Analysis of Student Teachers' Verbal Learning Behavior.

Casey, Sister Natalie. An Analysis of Selected Current Studies on Teaching: Implications for Teacher Education.

Collins, Robert. An Investigation to Determine How Conferences with their Cooperating Teachers Satisfy Elementary School Student Teachers' Concerns about Instructional Matters.

Hancko, Father. Influence of Descriptive Studies of Teaching Behavior on the Preservice Professional Preparation of Teachers.

Heidelbach, Ruth. The Development of a Tentative Model for Analyzing the Verbal Behavior of Cooperating Teachers Engaged in Individualized Teaching with Student Teachers.

Holmes, Roger. The Relationship Between Selected Teacher Classroom Behavior Characteristics of the Cooperating Teacher and the Student Teacher.

Kimsey, Theodora. The Work of One College Supervisor with Supervising Teachers in Off-Campus Schools: An Analysis of Conferences.

Masters, Dorothy. A Comparison of the Questioning Behavior of Student Teachers who have Engaged in Analytical Study of their Questioning in Teaching and college personnel to cooperatively assume responsibility for these judgin Analytical Study of their Questioning in Teaching.

to describe and to hypothesize about instances of teaching will increase.

Additional testing of our hypotheses can be had by use of an experimental and a control group and by comparison of the findings from each group. For example:

> Student teachers who are guided in study of their teaching behavior as recorded on videotape and analyzed in terms of a systematic set of categories (specifically named) will show more increase in nondirective teaching behavior than do student teachers who do not have this guided study and analysis.

It should be noted that in order to test this hypothesis, the independent variable—guided analysis of videotape recorded teaching behavior in terms of a specific set of categories—would have to be so defined as to make possible obtaining valid and reliable data on it, and similarly with the dependent variable—increase in nondirective teaching behavior. In addition, such a comparative study would necessitate creating conditions which make comparison of results valid.

Not every decision made in planning and conducting a teacher education program is going to rest on such empirical data. Insofar as possible, and that is ever so much farther than we have gone up to this time, it is now expected that proposals for action emanate from systematic inquiry.

Personnel Involved in Scientific Inquiry Into Education:

Particularly significant here are two desirable developments in current responses to this demand for empirically tested knowledge: (a) the involvement of a range of specialists in the research efforts, and (b) the establishment of laboratories in which studies might be carried forward. Because each of these features has specific implications for cooperative endeavors, further comment on them is deserved.

At least five categories of persons are actively involved in responding to the demand for empirically tested knowledge in education: behavioral scientists, subject matter specialists, professors in colleges and universities, practioners at all levels in the schools, and research specialists. In some instances, representatives from all five categories are involved in a single study. For example, research on language development of young children in ghetto schools, frequently makes necessary participation by a social psychologist, a psychologist, a specialist in language, a materials specialist, a practicing teacher, and a research specialist. Additionally, such study may employ services of a social worker, a physician, a psychiatrist, and an anthropologist. A study of social climate in the classroom and its impact upon pupils may call for a practicing classroom teacher, a social psychologist, a specialist in study of teaching behavior, a curriculum specialist, and a researcher with specialized competence.

What is somewhat unique, at least in some cases, is the collaborative nature of the participation by a range of specialists in investigations. Profits for all concerned from involvement by people from several specialties is sure to be substantial. Moreover, because one central laboratory for conducting much of the needed research is the school classroom, a new range of specialists is brought into intimate contact with schools and people in them.

Laboratory Role of Regular Schools in Empirical Investigations:

What roles are to be played by regular schools as laboratories is quite critical to the nature of future cooperative endeavors in teacher education. Laboratories of all kinds are emerging. There are demonstration laboratories, experimental laboratories, learning laboratories, research and development laboratories, and educational laboratories. There are laboratories in schools and others in colleges and universities. There are laboratories removed from direct association with either schools or universities. There are local, state, regional, and proposed national laboratories. And there is a persisting emphasis on the schools as laboratories in which research and experimentation should flourish.

Unquestionably, varied types of research laboratories will continue to be needed if scientific inquiry into education is to be optimally productive. Note the differences in research laboratories suggested by the following:

In discussing "the definition and reallocation of school and university roles in training teachers," Shaplin states :

> Clearly the *colleges and universities* are best fitted to provide the teaching, the libraries, the *laboratories,* and the climate of thought in which mature minds can develop. The university is best prepared to undertake basic inquiry, to formulate and design research studies aimed at answering fundamental questions in education, *though the studies may be carried out in the schools.*[3]

Wiles, presenting his ideas about "The Teachers We Need," says:

> We need to develop ways for building the college of education program around *laboratories devoted to the investigation of the school program*—laboratories in which the teaching staff of the college conduct or participate in research activities which will increase their understanding and give them greater assurance for making statements about teaching, learning, and the school program. The *laboratories* must also *provide experiences* for students so that they will see themselves as investigators in the process of education.[4]

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[3] Shaplin, Judson. "Practice in Teaching." *Teacher Education: A Reappraisal.* (Edited by Elmer Reia Smith.) New York: Harper & Row, 1962. p. 120 (Italics added.)

[4] Wiles, Kimball. "The Teachers We Need." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 262-8; Summer 1966. (Italics added.)

Psychiatrist Kubie suggests:

> This is precisely what we need in education: *research schools to parallel research hospitals.* The best schools of tomorrow will be the schools which carry on daily basic research in every detail of the education process, schools with observation chambers and recording equipment, schools with research staffs, schools with at least as many professionals as students. There must be research scientists in education working beside the general practitioners of education, just as there are research scientists in medicine working beside the practitioners, each learning from the other.[5]

Reporting on "A Model of a Cooperative Resource Demonstration Center" Corrigan says:

> The Center will provide a resource for university and city school personnel to meet for preservice and in-service education programs, and through its television network and other communication avenues, bring the resources of the Center to and from other city schools, local industry, museums and libraries, and the University.
>
> It will also offer opportunity for researchers, graduate students, and University faculty members to participate with city school personnel in some of the significant research that needs to be undertaken for improving urban education. It is hoped that this Center will serve as a model system, as part of a program to help a large city attack the problems of urban education.[6]

Shaplin speaks of laboratories in the university, where basic inquiry is carried on. He suggests that some studies may use the schools, but these will be formulated and designed by university personnel. In this sense, the school may be a source of data, and school personnel may become subjects in studies. It can reasonably be assumed here that Shaplin is referring to the *production of knowledge* relevant to educational questions. The relationship teachers in preparation might have to such a laboratory is minimal, at best.

Although Wiles is not explicit on details, it appears that he is talking about regular schools as laboratories where both college teachers and students might be active. Kubie, on the other hand, seems clearly to be talking about specialized schools, set apart from others because they are centers for scientific inquiry. Relationship of these selected research centers to other schools and to universities can be inferred from relationships that usually prevail between research hospitals, other hospitals, and schools of medicine.

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[5] Kubie, Lawrence S. "Research in Protecting Preconscious Functions in Education." (Mimeo.) (Italics added.)

[6] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Committee on Studies, Subcommittee on School-College Relationships in Teacher Education. *Cooperative Structures in School-College Relationships for Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1965. p. 91.

In Corrigan's plan it is explicitly stated that some research will be carried on by university professors, but it is also made clear that pre- and in-service teachers might work side by side with other school and university personnel, and in addition, other specialists from the community.

Problem of Dissemination of Research Findings from Research Schools to Regular Schools:

These four and many other types of research laboratories will be needed in advancing knowledge in education. Experience of three and four decades ago, however, should serve to caution against certain dangers. For example, sharp distinctions between the production of knowledge through basic scientific inquiry in university laboratories and production of knowledge through scientific inquiry in practical settings (schools) would seem to be unwise. Similarly, previous experience does not auger well for sharp distinctions between selected research-experimental schools and regular schools. Earlier distinctions of these kinds surely contributed to the slow pace of dissemination and utilization of research findings; to unfruitful relationships between behavioral scientists and educators; to unproductive relationships between schools and colleges. Furthermore, such distinctions did not help young people preparing to teach to acquire the notion that teachers had responsibility for continuous inquiry into their work; rather, they may have contributed to students' feeling that all responsibility for advancing knowledge about problems and practices in education belonged to university professors. Too often this feeling was accompanied by disdain for research and theory on the part of practitioners and by equal disdain for practical considerations on the part of researchers and theorists.

Involvement of Teachers In Research, Including Supervising Teachers and Student Teachers:

A good many teacher educators, as well as supervisory and administrative personnel in schools, believe that classroom teachers should be able to carry on some research activities. A few educators have gone so far as to suggest that the most useful research in education in the future will be done in classrooms and schools and will be done by school personnel, particularly teachers. No one would seriously propose that all the needed research could or would be done by practitioners or in classrooms. But there are persuasive reasons why much research will be designed and carried out by teachers and their colleagues in school settings. First, if present proposed programs in which preservice students get experience in analytical study of their teaching, in participating in research projects of various sorts, in having specialized preparation in research methodologies, and in learning by appropriate methods of inquiry are even in some measure effective, we may reasonably expect that as classroom teachers they will sustain their interest and their desire to continue to take an investigatory approach to their problems. Second, if schools and school systems continue the trend toward locally sponsored and conducted research, teachers will continue to be involved in such research. Third, some investigations carried on by university personnel will of necessity involve teachers and pupils in studies of various sorts. Fourth, if standards for admission to full standing in the profession of teaching continue to rise and conditions surrounding teaching continue to improve, more able students will enter teaching, and these persons will require opportunity for continued inquiry as a condition for teaching. Conditions that encourage scholarly behavior—time, space, resources, rewards—will need to be available to all teachers.

If systematic study of education is to be carried forward by joint efforts of school and college personnel, if prospective teachers are to have encounter with such study in school laboratories, if they are to deepen and extend their concepts of teaching through integrating study of both practice and theory, if they are are to be competent students of teaching, then schools and colleges will be intricately bound in significant cooperative endeavors.

A Modification in Definition of Teacher Education

Traditionally, the line between preservice and in-service teacher education has been arbitrary and distinct. For the most part, college or university personnel have assumed responsibility for preparation of a young person during his college years and have abruptly ceased concern for his welfare once he was placed in his first year of teaching. At this point, school personnel have taken over responsibility. It is true that the gap between collegiate preparation and the first years of teaching in the field has long been recognized as undesirable. It is also true that some colleges have attempted follow-up programs, usually of minimal dimensions, and that some school systems have made special provision for guidance of new teachers. But continuity in the experience of the young teacher as he moved from being a student to being a teacher has been lacking.

Needed—A Continuous Program in the Study of Teaching:

If, in addition to being liberally educated persons, teachers are to be scholars who are predisposed toward and capable of scientific inquiry into their work, four years of post high school education are clearly not enough. But the answer is not to be found in merely increasing the number of years required in college prior to taking a responsible teaching assignment of some sort. Nor is the answer in taking the liberal arts college graduate, placing him in the classroom, and expecting that in a brief one year of teaching and study he will acquire the attitudes and capacities demanded of a *scholar teacher*.

What is called for is a continuous program in study of teaching, and related matters, from the time of decision to go into teaching as a career to the final years of practice. The sequence for any individual in this continuous program will be characterized by shifting degrees of involvement, of dependency, or responsibility, and of originality.

The setting in which most of this study will be done will be the classroom and the school. *The beginning student will find himself in a school laboratory as an observer, an analyzer, and at times, a participant. The career teacher will find himself in the same school laboratory as an initiator and originator of significant studies.* Selected career teachers, together with selected college teachers, will guide the novice as he prepares to assume ever-increasing professional responsibility.

Teaching Teaching in School:

In the various schemes that have been proposed for differentiating the functions of teachers, little direct attention has been given to the very specialized function of inducting the young.[7] It would seem to be quite essential, if young people preparing for a career in teaching are to have continuous experience as students of teaching, that there be available in the school laboratory skilled persons whose central responsibility is close, careful, and continuous guidance of these becoming teachers. Evidence that teachers in beginning years of service need specialized help is abundant. The number of beginning teachers who are unable to cope with their problems and consequently leave teaching is a loss that the profession can ill afford. Also, the number of beginning teachers who undertake their first assignments as enthusiastic, bright, creative students of teaching and in short order become, for diverse reasons, apathetic, discouraged, uninterested, unenthusiastic, and docile is a situation that need not prevail. To assign especially prepared and skilled individuals responsibility for continuous work in the school laboratory with persons being inducted into teaching can contribute to closing a gap which now causes unnecessary loss to the profession. Furthermore, such special responsibilities would provide an attractive and rewarding outlet for committed career teachers. These teachers would have responsible relationship to both college and school.

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[7] Space does not permit it, nor would it be appropriate to stop at this point to discuss the many proposals on differentiating functions in teaching. The author's point of view on this matter, however, is important to the proposals implied in this paper. Current proposals on differentiated functions seem (a) to be narrowly conceived as related primarily to team teaching, (b) to place unwise and unwarranted emphasis on functions *below* those now expected of regular classroom teachers, and (c) to fail to attend to the many urgent needs for functions *above* those now expected of regular classroom teachers. It does not seem to me that education is best served by moving into teaching functions persons with less preparation and ability than is the norm for presently employed teachers. One urgent need for specialization in function is the demand for teacher educators whose home base is the school.

It is readily apparent that provision for this kind of guidance requires not only assignment of personnel but assignment of time. What is not so readily apparent to a good many people is that this kind of guidance takes unique and specialized skills. Just because one is a master teacher in his classroom does *not mean necessarily* that he is also equipped to serve as a guide of novices. These guides will need to be persons at home with teaching and also at home with study of teaching. They will have to be intimately involved in the setting where the novice is working. In a sense, these specialists will have to have a combination of competencies now characteristic of the best college teachers, the best college supervisors of student teachers, the best cooperating teachers, and the best in-service supervisors.

The University Role in Teaching Teaching:

A question arises as to the desirability of placing total responsibility for the professional dimensions of inducting students into teaching in the schools and with school personnel. One possible answer to this question is found in examination of the rationale for placing a major portion of such preparation in the school laboratory. A fundamental reason for advocating early and continuous study in the practical situation is to provide concrete data and experience which cause the student to identify questions, to deepen and broaden his concept of teaching, and to build a cognitive structure to which new information and experience can be related. But questions that are identified call for more than observation and/or analysis of practice. A deep and broadened concept of teaching does not develop solely from what can be perceived in practice. Not all information and experience needed to understand and to practice the art of teaching come from the immediate in time or space or event.

School and University Working Together in Continuous Teacher Education:

There are organized bodies of knowledge, in the behavioral sciences, for example, which are basic to the practice of teaching. There is need for a student of teaching to examine systematically the fundamental questions in education. Such examination needs to take account of alternatives and comparisons; it needs to be disciplined in the sense that it employs both key concepts and methods of inquiry from a range of fields of knowledge. Unless a student is required to engage in this kind of examination, there is danger that his developing concept of teaching will be narrow and superficial, and that the bases for his decisions in teaching will tend toward imitation or irrational adoption of specific practices. By reason of the range of specialists and resources available for this kind of examination, the college is best fitted to provide for it. But the chances that a student will be able to integrate his learning from such systematic study so that it has meaning for him as a teacher are greatly enhanced if he has concrete data from the practical situation to which to relate his learning.

It is basically for this reason that both the school and the college must share responsibility in planning and conducting programs in the professional preparation of teachers. It is for this reason that simultaneity in experience in the school laboratory and experience in the college classroom or laboratory is of import. Hence, neither the school nor the college is adequate alone to provide the needed study of teaching.

A question arises also concerning the length of the induction process during which college and school personnel need to assume particular responsibility. The point at which it seems logical to terminate the intimate guidance of the novice is when it can be predicted that the teacher will, by his own initiative, continue to pursue those activities commensurate with scholarship in teaching.[8] This is the same point at which it seems logical to grant the teacher a permanent license. Individuals being as they are, it can be anticipated that such a point will be reached at different times by different teachers. For some, no doubt one year of responsible teaching with guidance will provide adequate data on which to predict future behavior; for others, several years of experience, with guidance, will be required. Specifically planned and formalized teacher education programs, including systematic study in both school and college, would therefore continue up to this point. An assumption that sounds reasonable, but is not as yet tested, is that if this were done, licensed teachers would continue to be students of their practice.

If such a conception of teacher education is reasonable, then clearly school and college personnel are perforce in a cooperative endeavor of some magnitude and significance.

Individualization and Personalization in Teacher Education

Ultimately what is hoped for as the outcome of a teacher education program is a person who finds satisfying self-expression in his individual, personal style of encounter with others in the teaching act. Combs has vividly enunciated the conditions that are likely to make this possible.[9] There is no need to reiterate them here, except to note the importance of the self, of individuality, of involvement. Encouragement of an individual, personal style in learning is essential in the development and use of the "self as instrument" in teaching.

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[8] Difficulties inherent in this proposal are recognized (e.g., criteria on which judgment shall be based, data needed as evidence, who shall make decisions). That both college and school personnel would need to be involved is obvious. Cumulative records on individuals, including records of teaching behavior, of conferences, of study, of evaluations, and so on, would be useful. Joint judgments are likely to be better than individual judgments. To expect school and college personnel to cooperatively assume responsibility for these judgments would have positive results (e.g., colleges could not abdicate their responsibility before graduates had adequately demonstrated their promise to continued competence; placing of blame and scapegoating would decrease).

[9] Combs, Arthur Wright. *The Professional Education of Teachers.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1965.

In his editorial in the special issue of the *Saturday Review* on "The New Computerized Age," Cousins comments:

> The essential problem of man in a computerized age remains the same as it has always been. That problem is not solely how to be more productive, more comfortable, more content, but how to be more sensitive, more sensible, more proportionate, more alive.
>
> . . . .
>
> The reason these matters are important in a computerized age is that there may be a tendency to mistake data for wisdom, just as there has always been a tendency to confuse logic with values, and intelligence with insight. . . .[10]

Combs is forcefully reminding educators of the importance of the *person* in the educational encounter. Cousins is calling the attention of all to a danger that lurks in an overemphasis on or misuse of the miracles of an electronic age. The message comes through loud and clear. Beware of focus on the scientific that loses sight of the humanistic in teaching. Look out for mass strategies and tactics that may suffocate the individual. Guard against neglecting the fundamental import of values and wisdom in efforts to support logic and to base operations on factual data. It is a message that needs to be heard by teacher educators who carry so much influence in shaping the activities and behaviors of future school personnel.

Taking on the Subculture of Teachers While Finding a Personal Style:

Of prime importance are the *persons* who have intensive and close contact with students in their learning to be teachers and in their early attempts to assume teaching roles. A degree of osmosis takes place between these teachers and the students with whom they work. As Merton and his colleagues point out so clearly in their study of the student in the process of becoming the physician, students tend to take on the ideas, the atitudes, the values, and the behaviors they perceive in their professional subculture, as displayed by members in it with whom they are in close contact.[11] So, too, it can reasonably be assumed that teachers in their "becoming" take on the subculture of their profession as they perceive its values, attitudes, ideas, and behavior displayed by those around them.

If the student is to be valued for what he is and can become, his individual, personal style will need to be nurtured deliberately by those who work closely with him over sustained periods of time. As Combs and others have suggested, there are definable ways of nurturing the *person* in the student, of protecting and encouraging his individuality. Fundamentally, however, only the teacher who himself feels respected for what he is, who experiences the freedom to exercise his own personal style in his work, and who cherishes such freedom for others is likely to be successful in nurturing the individual, personal development of a student. By extension, it can be seen that those responsible for creating the conditions in which teacher educators work contribute in a major way to the encouragement of individuality and personalization by their selection of personnel and by the freedom with which they surround persons.

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[10] Cousins, Norman. "The Computer and the Poet." *Saturday Review* 49: 42; July 23, 1966.

[11] Merton, Robert, and others. *Student Physician.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957. 360 pp.

Problems associated with providing for individualization in teacher education programs are numerous. Partially they are inherent in the course-credit-class structure that dominates higher education. Some problems are rooted in the bigness, the mass production, and the general depersonalization in many colleges. Others result from interpretation of degree and certification requirements. Whatever the problems, arising from whatever sources, and of whatever magnitude—ways must be found to provide more adequate opportunity than is now available for each individual to progress at his own rate and style in becoming a teacher. The school laboratory would seem to be a center where exemplary practices in individualization might be demonstrated.

The School Laboratory as a Place for Individualizing a Teacher Education Program:

For example, it is possible to conceive of the school laboratory as a place where people, things, and ideas are present and where activities of many sorts are in progress. Planned sequences of experiences of various kinds would be readily available, and each student would be guided carefully in his progression from one level to another. Some students would quite quickly initiate experimental projects with groups of pupils; others might not take such initiative until much later. Some would engage over a considerable period of time in dyadic and small group situations, while others proceeded to work with groups of class size. Some would begin systematic analysis of their own behavior almost immediately; others might postpone this activity until a later time. Some would begin to test their own ideas on the organization of content for instruction, while others were still quite dependent in this respect. And some would make great leaps, thus bypassing planned interim experiences. In such a setting, the range of opportunities available would encompass both the cognitive and the affective, both the science and the art, both the normative and the personal, individual dimensions of teaching.

Research Needed on Sensitivity in Teaching as well as on Verbal Behavior:

Another concern for individualization and personalization grows out of what has been emphasized in the first part of this paper, that is, the demand for empirically tested knowledge in education. Quite naturally, when such a demand is everywhere apparent and many people wish to respond to it, the areas selected for scientific inquiry are those areas which lend themselves most easily to such inquiry. Witness the volume of descriptive studies on verbal behavior of teachers. Note that inquiry into the art of teaching, into personal styles of teaching behavior, into the affective dimensions of a teaching/learning environment are conspicuous by their negligible number. Witness the availability of training programs for student teachers that focus on their analysis of their own teaching behavior. But note the rare existence of similar programs that focus on sensitivity, perception, and feeling. While preparing teachers to analyze their verbal teaching behavior and recognizing the importance of this kind of study of teaching, the cruciality of sensitivity, perception, and feeling and training in them must not be denied.

Three types of research efforts come to mind as illustrative of ways of working on the individualization and personalization of teacher education programs. They can only be identified here.

First, study of specifically-designed procedures for training in sensitivity to cues in teaching situations is indicated. Can levels and scope of this sensitivity be defined? If so, can persons be helped to lift the level and broaden the scope of their perceptions and sensitivity? By what means? Is there any reason to assume that we cannot affect change in this dimension as we can affect change in style of questioning?

Second, sensitivity to cues in teaching would seem to be related to personal beliefs, to self-understanding, to internal motivating forces, and to self-confidence. Would group therapy for all future teachers be a means toward self-acceptance and confidence? Is it possible that studies could be made to test this and other strategies presumed to have potential in developing persons who are free and able to perceive, and to respond sensitively to what they perceive?

Third, there is need for intensive longitudinal studies designed to examine the progression of individuals toward personal teaching style. Such studies would be best conducted in situations where a range of resources and opportunities was available, where intimate and effective counseling was constant, and where provisions for recording and analyzing were accessible. From a collection of such longitudinal studies, it is proposed, much might be learned that could well become a part of teacher education programs.

It will be particularly important for school and college teacher educators to take precautions that attention to the individual person is not lost in the race for establishing empirically tested knowledge about limited dimensions of teaching.[12] It will be a sad commentary if experiences of students are so focussed on and their time so consumed by analytical study of teaching that they become a mass of impersonal mechanical technicians, who neither perceive nor value the application of wisdom and morality to their judgments in teaching. Teaching is an intensely personal matter, as is learning. Personal styles can be nurtured.

Implications for Cooperative Endeavors in Teacher Education

From among the many areas that need to be examined in order to build a framework for action proposals, only three have been discussed, and those have been treated briefly. Selection of the three was based on a belief that each was relevant to speculations about future school-college cooperative endeavors. Haskew has suggested that teacher education programs should be planned for, that planning begins with establishing a framework and that planning should aim at correcting fundamental insufficiencies in present practices.[13] In concluding this paper, two steps are taken. The first is to provide a brief answer to the question, What are the fundamental insufficiencies that become apparent when present arrangements and practices are examined in the light of a new framework? The second is to present some speculations about the future of cooperative endeavors, growing out of the brief analysis of the three selected areas.

Some Insufficiencies in Present Cooperative Endeavors

Cooperative endeavors now developing between a few higher education institutions and selected schools promise significant improvement over past efforts, but they are inadequate for the future. Although there are outstanding exceptions, the nature and scope of present practices are more limited, more superficial, and more unproductive than they can and should be.

Practices often, if not usually, have a "you cooperate with me" character. That is, the college or university seeks and gets the kinds of cooperation it views as desirable. Collegiate personnel, often viewing themselves superior, take the initiative, set the requirements, and control the practices; while school personnel generously, and sometimes not so generously, perform the roles assigned to them by the college.

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[12] In this connection there is reason to fear the abandonment of concern for people and programs that seems to accompany some researchers' drive for evidence. Production of knowledge through scientific inquiry is a necessary part of any worthy teacher education program. Processes in producing new knowledge negatively affect programs and persons in them *only* if and when researchers cause them to do so.

[13] Haskew, Laurence D. "Planning for the Education of Teachers." *Journal of Teacher Education* 17: 257-61; Summer 1966.

Presently, such endeavors are, with rare exception, confined to a small segment, albeit an important segment, of the total teacher education program, that is, student teaching and interning. In limited numbers, institutions and schools have reached agreement with respect to other kinds of laboratory experiences, chiefly observation of practice by students prior to student teaching.

Personnel involved in cooperative efforts is limited. On the school side of the roster may be found extremely remote participation by school superintendents, somewhat less remote participation by school principals, and deep involvement by selected classroom teachers who have student teachers or interns in their classrooms. On the college side, involvement is often limited to the administrator of student teaching and his corps of supervisors; infrequently do other college teachers or administrators actively participate at any point in the cooperative endeavor. Where persons beyond those directly related to supervising students are now included, roles assigned to them are for the most part, and in most situations, advisory in nature.

Outcomes that might be achieved through cooperative endeavors are narrowly conceived by both school and college personnel. Not infreqently, objectives of both students and those who supervise them are limited to testing the students' ability to teach, to put into practice what has been learned in college courses taken previously. Often college representatives seek cooperation solely for the purpose of facilitating the placement and activities of student teachers. Classroom teachers and school principals too seldom think beyond the vague notion of contributing to the profession, the personal-professional prestige derived from being selected to work with college students, or the relief a student teacher might provide.

In many present cooperative endeavors, the range of activities is also very limited. Within the school, it is the classroom and what goes on in it that often circumscribes the activities of students and those who work with them. Little use is made of the total school or total college or of the settings of these institutions and their relationships to community and world.

Some Speculations about Future Cooperative Endeavors in Teacher Education

A first speculation with regard to future cooperative endeavors relates to one characteristic of cooperating schools. Most schools in the future will be centers of some study and research and will have ongoing relationships with college or university personnel in the continuous examination of what goes on in them, in production of new knowledge with respect to the range of school enterprises, in the study of change and change agents, and so on. A central criterion in the selection of a school as a center for teacher education will be the effectiveness of its study program.

A student preparing to teach will enter the stream of activities in a selected school as he commences his study of teaching and of education. His experiences will range from observation of research studies in action to participation as a subject, to analysis of findings, and to designing and conducting simple research studies on his own and in concert with others. As a theory of teaching is developed and methods appropriate to discovery and verification of knowledge related to teaching become more clear, students of teaching will devote considerable portions of their time to inquiring into teaching by use of appropriate methods. This study will be the focus of the teacher education program, and around it the student will organize his inquiry into relevant bodies of knowledge regarding both theory and practice. He will be guided in this continuous study by both college and school personnel.

In the school laboratory, considerably more emphasis than is now given will be focussed on individualization and personalization in the program for pupils, for novices being inducted, and for teachers in service. Concerted attention will be given to ways and means of helping each person to develop his uniqueness. Accompanying experiences in analytical study of teaching behavior will be equally effective experiences in perception and sensitivity training.

The present notion of student teaching will fade out of existence. In its place will be a matrix of experiences concerned with progression from initial general, nondiscriminating, and incomplete contact with teaching to deep and broad conceptualization demanded of the professional practitioner; from observer and participator in scientific inquiry to originator and designer of such inquiry; from insecure, imitating, dependent behavior to confident, creative, and responsible behavior. Students in the school laboratory will therefore be at all levels along these continua. College and school personnel working with them cannot be confined, therefore, to those now working with student teaching and intership programs.

In schools selected as laboratories, specialized personnel will assume responsibility, together with college personnel, not only for the guidance of those entering the profession, but also for systematic study as teacher educators. That is, they will be engaged continuously in search for new knowledge about inducting the young, about their own behavior and its effect on the student, and about their roles and those of others with whom they join in planning and conducting portions of the teacher education program. Indeed, the subject of some of their inquiry will be fundamental questions about cooperative endeavors.

It is very clear that our present conception of what it takes effectively to assume a teacher education role is woefully incomplete. Educators qualified to serve as teacher educators in the senses implied here will first of all be persons who find in teaching rewarding self-expression, they will be professional scholars who persist in their search for new knowledge, and they will possess interest and skill in working intimately with prospective members of their profession. Not nearly enough such teacher educators are now available. Means must be found to provide special preparation for those who have the interest and the promise to be successful in discharging teacher education responsibilities. What has been said here applies equally to school and college personnel.

Responsibilities of parties involved in cooperative endeavors must be agreed upon; conditions must be created (including reinforcement and reward conditions) to maximize opportunities for each person to perform at his highest level of competence. But mere administrative structures cannot be relied upon as the central means for dealing with the demands placed upon schools and colleges that seek to engage cooperatively in conducting and improving teacher education programs. Present emphasis on administrative structures appears to grow out of too narrow a conception of functions to be served by cooperation between colleges and schools. A redress is needed. Emphasis should be placed now on fundamental thinking about ends to be served and strategies which promise to be means to those ends. The circle is complete, for this is where I began.

> In its simplest sense, change is the substitution of one thing for another; but growth, or improvement, assumes a fundamental reorganization of thinking, and implies that any resulting change be self-reasoned action that follows upon intelligent analysis.

AFTERWORD

The joint AACTE-AST Workshop-Symposium at Indiana, Pennsylvania, in the summer of 1966 and this volume growing from it have been attempts to cause the profession to take a new look at the vital field components in teacher education. The sponsors have in a way invited the profession to consider three thrusts toward improvement simultaneously.

First, there is the development of modern substantive foundations for teacher education which deals with the process of reconceptualizing teaching with the application of modern emerging theories of instruction based on classroom research, and with recent formulation regarding the personal sensitivity dimensions of teaching behavior.

Second, there are the many new instructional innovations for the teaching of teaching, such as micro-teaching, the several techniques for the analysis of student teaching, team internships, and team supervision.

Finally, there are the explorations into new cooperative structures among universities, schools, state agencies, and professional organizations.

In the past, reorganizations of thinking, planning, and practice in teacher education have mainly involved college oriented personnel making requests of schools and teachers for help in carrying out their plans. This situation of noncommitment of the total profession in the teacher education enterprise may have been the main reason why innovation and improvement in preparing teachers and continuing their education has been so sluggish until this time.

Views for restructuring of relationships into new cooperative patterns of organization have to come along with visions for reorganizing thinking about teaching and preparation for it if new ideas are to take hold and become operational on a large scale.

The classic separation between school and university in these matters has been tolerated for too long. The times call for bold ventures in ideas and in organization to accomplish a new order in educating students for a teaching career.

Partnership in Teacher Education can be the instrument by which Dewey's dream of a "laboratory" for the study of teaching can at long last be realized.

> Unless a teacher is a student [of teaching] he may continue to improve in the mechanics of school management, but he cannot grow as a teacher, an inspirer, and a director of soul-life.[14]

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[14] Dewey, John. *The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education.* Cedar Falls, Iowa: Association for Student Teaching, 1962 (reprint from Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1904), p. 8.